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AN ESSAY ON TRUTH.

ILLUSTRATED WITH AN EMBLEMATICAL FRONTISPIECE.

Truth, eldeſt daughter of the Deity;
Truth of his council, when he made the worlds;
Nor leſs, when he ſhall judge the worlds he made. YOUNG.

THERE is ſomething ſo tranſcendently beautiful in the natural appearance of Truth, that it at once convinces the underſtanding, and forces a paſſage to the heart. In vain may the hypocrite attempt to imitate this amiable virtue, or endeavour to impoſe upon the credulous, by the fabrications of deceit; for he is generally caught in the intricate trammels of invention, and it is not eaſy to ſay whether he is moſt condemned or deſpiſed.

It is very difficult to perſonate virtues, of which the heart is deſtitute. A man acting an artificial character, muſt be continually upon his guard, and the dread he muſt naturally feel, leſt his real diſpoſition ſhould be manifeſted, muſt give all his actions the appearance of conſtraint. 'Truth is always conſiſtent with itſelf; (obſerves Mr. Addiſon) and needs nothing to help it out; it is always near at hand, ſits upon our lips, and is ready to drop out before we are aware; whereas a lie is troubleſome, ſets a man's invention upon the rack, and one trick needs a great many more to make it good. It is like building upon a falſe foundation, which continually ſtands in need of props to ſhore it up, and proves at laſt more chargeable than to have raiſed a ſubſtantial building at firſt, upon a true and ſolid foundation.'

Theſe are the ſentiments of a man who was perhaps more completely acquainted with human nature than any author, either in ancient or modern times; and what makes his writings peculiarly impreſſive, is, that they correſponded with the ſtrict rectitude of his life. Unſupported by truth, and unaided by ſincerity, man becomes iſolated from the reſt of his race; he loſes the confidence that would have been repoſed in him as a ſocial being, and, inſtead of being reſpected, is univerſally deſpiſed.

In an intercourſe with the world, or in any of its active employments, what can give a man ſo great a degree of importance, as a ſtrict adherence to ſincerity and truth? Who will place confidence in a character that is unſupported by theſe virtues? or who would have dealings with a

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man on whoſe word they cannot rely? For he diſſevers the bond which binds ſociety together, and becomes a ſeparate link in the univerſal chain. If misfortunes aſſail ſuch a man, who will be deſirous of relieving them? Who will feel anxious to promote his intereſt, or who will pour conſolation into his heart? For, having loſt that eſteem, which is the foundation of all friendſhip, he can have no claim upon a ſingle individual's regard.

'Truth,' ſays an author * of known celebrity, 'relies on its native and inherent vig ur; while falſehood, which is allied to cowardice, fortifies itſelf againſt danger by ſuperfluous precautions; it lengthens the line of its defence, and expoſes its impotence by he buſy ſcrupuloſity of its fears.' The advantages which are to be derived from an adherence to truth, are ſo numerous that it ſeems aſtoniſhing that mankind ſhould ever deviate from her paths; and that, if deſtitute of principle, policy ſhould not teach them to adhere to a practice ſo beneficial to themſelves. There are many who will admit that integrity is an amiable quality, that it is entitled to much reſpect, and in moſt caſes ought to influence our behaviour; yet ſtill are unwilling to allow it the chief direction of their worldly conduct. A ſtrict adherence to candour, they ſay, in an intercourſe with ſociety, is incompatible with the different views of mankind; and that ſelf-intereſt, like ſelf-preſervation, is an inſtinctive principle which actuates the mind.

But far different will be the ſentiments of him, who is influenced by rectitude, and who voluntarily inliſts under the banner of Truth; who forms no deceptious plans that can be injurious to his neighbour, and whoſe mind is uninfluenced by any low deſigning view. Men of the former ſtamp, it is true, ſometimes ſucceed in their undertakings; but in ſupporting an artificial character, they muſt be continually acting under the influence of conſtraint, and the dread they muſt feel, leſt their deſigns ſhould be developed, muſt embitter their hours with anxiety and pain! No calculation of probabilities can inſure ſafety to thoſe who are acting a deceptious part in ſociety, and amid the unforeſeen viciſſitudes of the world, they have not only diſappointment to dread, but the detection of thoſe views which would add contempt to adverſity, and render them objects univerſally deſpiſed. But he, who follows the guidance of integrity, feels no alarm at the expoſure of his deſigns; if misfortune aſſails him, he has a ſoother in his own conſcience, and fears not the cenſure or the diſapprobation of mankind. Religion had prepared his mind for the varying events of this inconſtant ſtation, and weaned him from too great a partiality to the world; his hopes had been fixed upon higher proſpects, and his little bark was equipped for the ſtorm.

'There is,' ſays Dr. Blair, 'a period in every man's life, when he ſhall be made to ſtand forth as a real object to his own view; and when that period comes, woe to him who is galled by the ſight! In the dark and ſolitary hour of diſtreſs, with a mind hurt and ſore from ſome recent wound of fortune, how ſhall he bear, for the *firſt time*, to have his character diſcloſed to him in that humiliating light in which guilt will preſent it? Then the recollection of the paſt becomes dreadful! He beholds, or thinks he beholds, the hand of the God whom he has offended openly ſtretched out againſt him; and how miſerable muſt be the ſtate of him, who is condemned to endure the oppreſſion of calamity, and the weight of a wounded conſcience!' But the man whoſe life has been ſpent in the uniform practice of virtue, and who has followed the paths of rectitude and truth, is aided by the ſuſtaining power of conſcience, and finds conſolation in the midſt of his diſtreſs.

* Mr. Fellows.

Truth is ſo eſtimable and ſo amiable a quality, that it was an ancient philoſopher's remark, that if the Almighty thought proper to render himſelf viſible, he would chooſe light for his body, and truth for his ſoul. Truth and ſincerity may be conſidered as the baſis of every virtue, or as the ſtock from whence they all take reſt, and therefore it is peculiarly neceſſary to inſtil the practice of them into the minds of youth. Every appearance of diſſimulation at that early period muſt excite the moſt fearful apprehenſions in the mind; for if we then diſcover artifice, deſign, and hypocriſy, what is to be expected as they advance in life? The path of truth is plain and eaſy; while that of falſehood leads into a perplexing maze; one artifice unavoidably leads to another, until the inventor is left entangled in his own ſnare. A noble mind is incapable of deception; it feels itſelf above ſtooping to the practice of any low deſign, but openly avows its plans and its intentions; for as they are all formed upon a honourable baſis, there is no neceſſity for their being concealed.

I have remarked, that it is aſtoniſhing policy does not point out the advantages of candour; but I will now recommend the practice in a more important light, and ſay, that every deviation from truth muſt be offenſive to that Being, who has expreſſed his abhorrence of artifice and deceit. Though we may impoſe upon mankind by the ſpecious appearance of virtue, yet we can never deceive the great Searcher of all hearts, who by the Omnipreſent power of his Divinity, is always privy to our moſt ſecret thoughts!

I ſhall conclude this eſſay, by drawing the character of a man of integrity, in the impreſſive words of the late Dr. Blair. 'He is one, who makes it his conſtant rule to follow the road of duty, according to the word of God; and the voice of a conſcience perfect and pure. He is not guided merely by affections, which may ſometimes give the colour of virtue to a looſe and unſtable character; but the upright man is directed by a fixed principle of mind, which determines him to eſteem nothing but what is honourable, and to eſchew whatever is baſe and unworthy in moral conduct. Hence you find him ever the ſame; the truſty friend, the affectionate relation, the conſcientious man of buſineſs, the pious worſhipper, the public ſpirited citizen. He aſſumes no borrowed appearance; he ſeeks no maſk to cover his deſigns; he acts no ſtudied part, but is what he appears, full of truth, candour, and humanity! In all his purſuits, he knows no path but the fair and the direct one, and would much rather fail of ſucceſs, than attain it by reproachful means. He never aſſumes a ſmiling countenance, while he meditates evil againſt you in his heart; never praiſes you among friends, and then joins in traducing you among your enemies; in ſhort, all his actions and words are influenced by Truth.'

An INVESTIGATION *of the* NATURE *of* PUBLIC LOANS *for the* SERVICE *of* STATES.

[From the French of N. F. Canard, of the National Inſtitute of France.]

IT is the intereſt of every ſtate to make an equal and uniform diſtribution of the extraordinary expences and burthens of war during the periods both of war and peace, in order to produce a permanent revenue, and an equable ſyſtem of taxation. But this end is to be obtained only by two methods; the firſt of which is, to levy, in time of peace, taxes ſuperior to the actual demands of the moment, and to hoard them up for the exigencies of war: the ſecond is to open a loan which ſhall be adequate

to the extraordinary neceſſities which a war gives birth to, and this loan to be afterward reimburſed by annuities, ſo as to be entirely liquidated by the time when, according to the uſual order of things, a freſh war may be anticipated, which ſhall bring with it its uſual attendance of wants and expenditure. As, therefore, in the ordinary courſe of human affairs, ſtates are liable to a new war, within the period of every twenty years, or *a little more or leſs*, this reimburſement ought to be carried into execution during the ſame ſpace of time. The queſtion that I now intend to examine is, which of theſe two methods is the moſt economical and the leaſt expenſive to a ſtate. The government which hoards up treaſures during peace, amaſſes, without any benefit to the nation, an accumulation of wealth, which otherwiſe would be employed in the increaſe or improvement of the different ſources of revenue, had it continued in the hands of the original lenders. An accumulation of treaſure tends therefore to prevent the further augmentation of the riches of a nation, and, by a natural conſequence, it embarraſſes the public energy. On the contrary, a loan is not attended with any inconvenience of this nature, for it procures for the government the funds which the preſſing exigencies of the moment may require: and, as on the one ſide it obviates the loſs which is regularly produced by the ſinking of capital, ſo, on the other, it prevents the embarraſſments which ariſe from a ſyſtem of intermittent impoſitions.

On the firſt view of this ſubject it may appear, that the intereſt of a loan is a freſh burthen on a ſtate; but on examination we ſhall find, that it is only an apparent burden. To prove this, let us abſtract all the inconveniencies of an extraordinary tax, and conſider nothing but the ſlow progreſs of its collection and production. If the government has not the neceſſary funds at the moment of demand, in whatſoever manner this exigency may be obviated, it is evident that the remedies which are adopted will be more burthenſome to the ſtate than the intereſt of any loan can be; and this intereſt is therefore a neceſſary burden, whatever meaſures may be ultimately reſorted to. We muſt moreover conſider, that, on every occaſion, individuals have at command no more than the neceſſary capital for the common courſe of their buſineſs, becauſe circulation requires no more ſpecie than is abſolutely neceſſary for the demands of ſociety. On the occaſion of a new tax, it follows, that nobody has at hand the ſum requiſite for the ſervice of the ſtate: he muſt therefore borrow the money, or withdraw it from the uſual channel of his buſineſs, or he muſt retrench his expences to an amount equivalent to the value of the tax. In the two firſt caſes, he bears the weight of the intereſt of the taxes; the retrenchment of his conſumption diminiſhes the productive labour of other individuals; and the ſame plan being purſued by others, his induſtry, or his income, muſt ſuffer in a proportionate degree. In the ſame manner, when a nation pays all at once an extraordinary tax, in whatſoever manner any individual may manage matters, he bears a burden as conſiderable as if the tax was diſtributed in a certain number of years, and that he ſhould pay, during the ſame time, the intereſt of the remaining impoſitions. Should the government, by its wiſdom, maintain an extenſive credit, and the intereſt of the loan be in equilibrium with the intereſt of money employed in commercial ſpeculations, in that caſe the reſource of the loan occaſions but a ſlight ſenſation of the burthens of the tax. It is evident, that the weight of taxation muſt be felt with more ſeverity in proportion to the higher rate of intereſt which a government may pay, or in proportion to the ſtrength or weakneſs of its general credit: and it follows, that the greateſt benefit which a nation can enjoy from its wealth and energy, is

a wiſe and upright adminiſtration, conſtantly directed by the principles of juſtice and good faith. So far I have conſidered the nature of loans in a general manner, without any relation to the different cauſes which ought to limit and modify them; for governments have not always the power, and ſtill leſs often the will, to follow a courſe of proceeding ſo regular, prudent, and circumſpect. Loans, in the light in which I view them, are calculated for nations of all deſcriptions without exception, and may be termed *economical loans*. But ſtates do not confine themſelves to the limits which I propoſe; they borrow as far as they are able, and, without giving themſelves any concern about futurity, they exhauſt in advance the reſources of future times, and accumulate, on generations yet unborn, the intereſt of the enormous debts which themſelves contract. It is uſeleſs to refute the objections which have been ſtarted againſt this ſpecies of loans. The ordinary objections are, that they withdraw the capital which ought to nouriſh induſtry; that they raiſe the rate of intereſt; that they give birth to a numerous claſs of idle and unproductive annuitants: moreover, that they tend to make wars more frequent and expenſive, and leave to poſterity the weight and burden of a ſtill increaſing debt, and finally introduce general bankruptcy, &c. All ſuch idle declamations are totally unconnected with the real nature of things, and are to be claſſed with the puerile invectives which are uttered againſt war, becauſe loans are the means of carrying it on. How many fine things may be ſaid! How many pathetic addreſſes may be made to the governors of rival ſtates, to prove to them the unreaſonableneſs and injuſtice of their ſanguinary diſputes! I now conſider only the actual ſtate of things, and not as our vain deſires would have them to be. States, as I have ſaid before, are like ſo many ſprings ſtretched againſt each other, and every nation reacts with all its energy againſt the nations which ſurround it. Every ſtate which is aggrandiſed and extended, tends to its diſſolution; every ſtate which yields to the preſſure of its rival, tends to its own annihilation. In order, therefore, that ſtates may preſerve their independence and ſecurity, they muſt react in a manner that will operate to preſerve a perfect balance of power; for it is the equilibrium of nations which conſtitutes the wiſdom of the political world. When any ſtate employs a new method of offenſive warfare, it compels other nations to employ the ſame weapons. Thus the firſt that carried on war with cannon and gunpowder, reduced the reſt of the world to the ſame ſyſtem of hoſtilities; and, by the ſame method of reaſoning, whatever ſtate was the firſt to have recourſe to the funding ſyſtem, ſubjected all other rival nations to employ mutually the ſame means of ſecurity and independence. Loans are therefore a ſpecies of weapon the force of which depends on the poſition of the nation which adopts it, and of the nation againſt which it is employed; and, in order to diſcover its effect, we muſt keep in mind theſe two principles of force and power. Nations in general may be conſidered under two points of view; either as territorial powers, or as induſtrious or commercial powers. A nation which, by its poſition, its taſte or inclinations, cannot extend its commerce to a great degree, the maſs of whoſe labour is nearly in equilibrium with its conſumption, and whoſe political efforts tend only to react, either to extend its territory or to prevent any aggreſſion, may be termed with propriety a territorial power. On the contrary, a nation advantageouſly ſituated in the neighbourhood of the ſea, whoſe inclination and energy are directed toward induſtry and commerce, and whoſe political efforts are made with a view to protection and aggrandiſement, conſtitutes what may be termed an induſtrious or commercial power. A power may be conſi-

dered as mixed, ſuch as France, and the generality of European ſtates: their political efforts have two directions, the firſt to protect commerce, and the ſecond to prevent any attack on their territories. The favourable ſituation of England has contributed to employ her political efforts in the protection and extenſion of her commerce, and this is one of the principal cauſes of the aggrandiſement of that coloſſal power.

The different ſtates which have come under my obſervations, may be conſidered as increaſing, or decreaſing, or ſtationary. All theſe differences may ſubſiſt in nations in a ſtate of war with each other; and ſo many different modifications may take place in the tactics and manœuvres of loans and ſupplies.

Let us now examine the ſtate of two induſtrious nations, of equal power, which make war againſt each other, or are in a ſtate of reciprocal rivalſhip with reſpect to commerce or dominion. Whether they contend with the arms of ſupplies and loans, or confine themſelves to the old method of carrying on war, they will be nearly in a ſtate of mutual equilibrium; but ſhould one of them have recourſe to loans, the other will be neceſſitated to adopt the ſame plan. If the firſt ſhould ſucceed, by means of loans, to concentrate the efforts of ten years into one, the other will be compelled to have recourſe to a ſimilar exertion: ſo that they will mutually exhauſt their reſources: they will ruin themſelves, or at leaſt injure their credit in a high degree; and, having exhauſted their efforts beyond a poſſibility of further exertion, they will ſtill find themſelves in a ſtate of equilibrium, and comparatively as powerful as they were before the commencement of hoſtilities. On this occaſion, however, I muſt obſerve, that I do not take into conſideration the chances and hazards of war, which either raiſe or depreſs the balance between equal powers, or ſupply the place of vigorous exertions in the moſt feeble ſtates.

The obſervations which I have made reſpecting two induſtrious nations in a ſtate of rivalſhip or hoſtility, may be applied to other nations which preſerve a balance of power among themſelves. It may be perceived, that induſtrious or commercial nations, which keep each other in a check, have no intereſt in recurring to loans, as this method of warfare makes no real alteration in their reſpective forces. It is true, that it tends to exhauſt them; but, as the ſame effect is produced in the rival ſtate, there is no effectual change in the balance of power. The ſtrength of ſtates is not abſolute; as they react againſt each other, they are only relative with reſpect to their opponents. As long as they weaken their mutual means of aggrandiſement, it may be ſaid that they maintain an equality of force, conſidered by themſelves. In this view, a nation declines in power when it becomes relatively inferior in ſtrength to the ſtates which uſually maintained a conteſt with it.

Let us ſuppoſe, in the ſecond place, that two territorial powers react with equal force againſt each other; in that caſe it will ſeldom happen that they will have recourſe to loans: becauſe, in ſuch nations, capital is not abundant; it muſt be confined to the ſources of production, and the ſcarcity of money reduces the number of lenders, and raiſes the rate of intereſt. It follows, that theſe ſtates find no facility in borrowing, and ſeldom have recourſe to it, or at leaſt on a very contracted ſcale. It is therefore manifeſt, that loans are a ſpecies of offenſive warfare, adapted only to induſtrious nations. A territorial power attacks its enemies with iron, and with ſoldiers. Iron is therefore the inſtrument of territorial ſtates, and gold the chief weapon among induſtrious and commercial nations.

I conſider, in the third place, two induſtrious nations, unequal in ſtrength, contending together. In this caſe, can the inferior ſtate maintain its

ground by means of more conſiderable loans? When an induſtrious nation takes advantage of the abundance of its wealth in order to raiſe loans, the competition of the lenders diminiſhes in proportion as capitals are abſorbed by the demands of government. Being always on the watch to calculate the hazard which their money may be expoſed to, they lend on more advantageous terms for themſelves, according to the diminution of credit by the accumulation of frequent loans. When a nation, inferior in ſtrength to its rival, borrows in a larger proportion with a view to produce an equality of force, its credit becomes weaker in proportion: it approaches the period when it can no longer have recourſe to loans; it preſerves its relative degree of weakneſs and inferiority to its more powerful rival; and it follows as a natural conſequence, that the ſyſtem of borrowing on the credit of government does not tend to improve the reſources of a nation which acts under an inequality in point of phyſical and artificial force. Two nations in this ſtate may be compared to two armies which cannonade each other, and are unequally ſupplied with ammunition. At the commencement of the battle, the advantages are equal on both ſides; but, ſhould it continue for any length of time, the army with inferior ammunition muſt retire from the field. When armies approach each other, they are generally ignorant of the relative ſtate of their ammunition; but induſtrious nations are better acquainted with the inequality of their forces, and that which finds the greateſt facility in borrowing, can continue the war till it has exhauſted the reſources of its rival. Thus the greateſt facility of borrowing is a real force which never fails of its effect. In an induſtrious nation, this facility of raiſing loans increaſes in proportion to its credit, its credit increaſes in proportion to its wealth, and its wealth is augmented in proportion to its energy. On the ſuppoſition of an equally good government in theſe nations, their ſtrength ſhould be ultimately eſtimated by the number of individuals who compoſe them, multiplied by the mean energy which ſhould be proportioned to each individual, on the ſuppoſition of a general equality. This is the true principle of power in every ſtate. Let them be combined by policy into any form, nothing can be produced but a force proportional to this ratio. In the ſame manner, the ſcience of mechanics may direct and combine its powers, without being able to create or augment their force; and as a power produces more effect in proportion as the friction of the machinery is leſs ſenſible, ſo the radical ſtrength of a nation reacts with more energy when it is not counteracted by a variety of embarraſſing political combinations. Nations, therefore, in a general ſenſe, are ſuſceptible of a proportional degree of energy, when they are governed more naturally and conformably to their peculiar bent and inclination, and their relative poſition.

From this view of matters, it is apparent, that the policy of every nation, that feels a degree of relative weakneſs, ought to lead it to an union with another ſtill weaker, for their mutual ſupport. The weakneſs of nations is the natural bond of connection between them, to enable them to withſtand the attacks of the more powerful; and in this general co-operation of intereſts conſiſts the equilibrium of all ſtates, however unequal in point of ſtrength.

I now come to conſider, in the fourth place, a territorial power, in oppoſition to an induſtrious or commercial ſtate. It is evident, from what I have before advanced, that they cannot maintain a due balance together, only as far as the habitual efforts of the one ſhall be proportional to the general exertions which the induſtrious nation may diſplay from the ſources of its wealth and credit. This explains the phenome-

non which we meet with in hiſtory, of an induſtrious nation, confined within a narrow territory, often barren and unproductive, which has nevertheleſs been capable, on ſeveral occaſions, of reſiſting the moſt extenſive and powerful territorial ſtates. But there is this difference between them, that a vaſt territorial power is founded on a more firm and durable baſis, particularly if it ſhould be under the direction of a wiſe and well-organiſed government. Whereas an induſtrious nation, even at the pinnacle of grandeur and proſperity, carries within it the ſeeds of a rapid declenſion; and accordingly, the extraordinary ſplendour which has been the lot of all great commercial ſtates which we read of in hiſtory, has been of a very ſhort continuance.

It remains now to conſider the nature of loans in increaſing and decreaſing nations. We muſt firſt obſerve, that an induſtrious nation can only raiſe loans in a ſtate of improvement and increaſe, and that muſt not take place at the firſt period of its proſperity, becauſe then all its ſource of revenue are in want of capital, and the ſcarcity of money, and the high rate of intereſt, prevent the facility of borrowing: but it is when money ſuperabounds, and all ſources of production are fully ſupplied with capital, that loans may be advantageouſly adopted. At this period, loans produce two remarkable effects; they furniſh the moſt efficacious means of diſplaying the energy of the nation, and adding weight to the efforts of the ſtate. Without recalling to mind the inconvenience of new taxes, let us compare the extenſive reſources which are rapidly brought forward by means of a loan, with the ſlow, laborious, and confined returns of revenue, and we ſhall ſee that the firſt method is incomparably ſuperior for the purpoſe of producing a powerful effort in a very ſhort ſpace of time.

In the ſecond place, it will be in vain to object, that the money abſorbed by loans, would otherwiſe increaſe and improve the different ſources of income. A difficulty of this kind is not felt in improving nations which begin to poſſeſs a ſurplus of circulating ſpecie. We have ſeen before, how a ſucceſſive accumulation of capital, by diminiſhing the intereſt of money, and other ſpecies of income, relaxes the emulation of labour, and introduces the period of declenſion and decay. By abſorbing the ſurplus of capital, loans may be ſaid to retard that period; they operate like ſalutary bleeding, which imparts new vigour to the body of the nation. Borrowing, in this view, not only prevents the relaxation of induſtrious emulation, but tends to increaſe it, becauſe, by preſenting individuals with a ſafe depôt for the ſurplus of their capitals, it offers further incentives to their induſtrious labour and economy. The contrivance of loans is therefore the means of turning off the ſurplus of national capital to the ſupport and defence of the ſtate, and by the ſame means it tends to preſerve and prolong the habits of emulation and induſtry. Let us ſuppoſe that the fifty millions which England has borrowed for a great political effort, had been ſucceſſively employed to the different ſources of income, and had progreſſively favoured the balance of foreign trade: let us moreover ſuppoſe, that every individual had preſerved the ſame degree of activity and economy, which ſuppoſition is contrary to the order of affairs in general; in this caſe, the balance of trade would have improved in a manner that would abſorb all the capital of Europe; the rate of intereſt, and of profits of every deſcription, would be reduced to a mere trifle, or rather the nation would verge conſiderably toward its declenſion. States conſume, as well as individuals; loans, taxes, and wars, are the objects of their conſumption. If nations were not to conſume a part of their wealth in wars, they would loſe that degree of

energy which wars require: if men had no ſuperfluous wants, they would loſe that degree of energy which their wants inſpire: in ſhort, if men were abſolutely diveſted of all ſuperfluous wants, or natural deſires, their energy would become extinct. It is from the natural effects of human wants and deſires that the energy of men and of nations derives its birth.

As long as a nation is in a ſtate of improvement, and the ſurplus of capital produces loans, provided theſe loans be not exceſſive, and do not attract too much capital, they do not tend to the ruin of a ſtate. When loans are conducted with the neceſſary degree of moderation, they are ſo far from leading to bankruptcy, that they reimburſe themſelves in a manner without any effort, and their actual reimburſement would counteract the good which they produce. In order to make this appear evident, let us ſuppoſe that a ſtate borrows, during three years, the total balance of its trade, and that, when its neceſſities are ſupplied, it ceaſes to borrow; the nation will pay no more taxes, in this caſe, than amount to the intereſt of this loan, which we muſt ſuppoſe to be at a low rate, from the ſuperabundance of money; and the balance of trade will decreaſe to the amount of the new taxes impoſed. But, as we have ſeen before, every freſh impoſition diminiſhes ſuperfluous conſumption, and throws this diminution into the political efforts of the nation. Every loan, moreover, by raiſing the rate of intereſt, and giving an inlet to capital, revives the ſpirit of induſtry and emulation. Theſe two cauſes will therefore operate to prevent the balance of trade from diminiſhing in a degree equal to the produce of the new taxes. On the ſuppoſition that it is diminiſhed to the amount of half the taxes, the remainder of this balance, not being abſorbed by new loans, will give freſh vigour to every ſpecies of induſtry. There will alſo arrive a period, when the total produce of capital will be increaſed ſo far as to compenſate the ſurplus taxes which have been laid on for the purpoſe of paying the intereſt of the loan. If before the loan took place, the political effort ſhould abſorb the tenth of the produce of the national induſtry, the taxes raiſed for the payment of the intereſt of the loan would alter this proportion; but a point will arrive, in which the general maſs of taxes, including the latter, will form no more than a ſum equal to the tenth of the total produce of induſtry, by reaſon of the augmentation which it has received. At this period the loan will be really reimburſed, becauſe, although the nation pays the intereſt of it, the proportion of the tax to the revenue of the nation will continue the ſame as before. The government, on this occaſion, may have recourſe to a new loan, which will reimburſe itſelf in the ſame form, in a fictitious manner, by the increaſe of general induſtry; and afterward may raiſe a third loan, and ſo on in regular ſucceſſion.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE INHABITANTS OF JAMAICA.

[From 'The Hiſtory of the Maroons,' &c. by R. C. Dallas, Eſq.]

THE number of ſlaves in Jamaica is computed, from authentic documents, to be at leaſt two hundred and fifty thouſand, excluſive of the Maroons. It is painful to an individual, unfriendly to ſlavery in any ſhape or under any modification, to recollect, that ſlavery, in a very abject degree, has exiſted among nations the moſt free and civilized, as well as deſpotic and barbarous, in all ages of the world, but eſpecially in the warm climates. It is a misfortune that puniſhes man: it is a political diſeaſe, that, for purpoſes to us inſcrutable, has been permitted to continue, and taint

inveterately the conſtitution of human ſociety. No revolutionary noſtrums recommended by ſtate empirics will eradicate it. Millions of the human race muſt by education be prepared for a new and ſound condition before an effectual remedy can be ſafely adminiſtered. But in Jamaica, the evil of ſervitude, to whatever height it may formerly have ariſen, is now aſſuaged by inſtitute, and tamed by manners. The general treatment of the negroes in this iſland is temperate and humane: recent regulations, enforced by law, reſtrain the deſpotiſm of the maſter, and to a very ſalutary degree protect the ſlave. Improving humanity imperceptibly, but daily, ſupplies an influence by which their condition is ameliorating. The negroes on a ſugar-plantation are, for purpoſes of daily labour, divided into three claſſes. The firſt is compoſed of the moſt robuſt of both ſexes: their chief employment conſiſts in preparing and planting the ſoil, cutting the canes, feeding the mill, and aiding in the manufacture of the ſugar and rum. The ſecond claſs is compoſed of young boys and girls, pregnant women and convaleſcents: theſe are ſeldom employed but in light labour adapted to their youth and condition. The third claſs conſiſts of young children, governed by a careful old woman, who employs them in picking graſs, or other exerciſe equally gentle. The firſt claſs at ſunriſe is ſummoned to the field by the ſound of a horn or bell: a white overſeer and a black driver ſuperintend them. The names being called over, and abſentees noted, their work commences, and continues till eight or nine o'clock; then, at leaſt half an hour is allotted for breakfaſt-time. This meal generally conſiſts of boiled or roaſted yams, or other vegetables, ſeaſoned with ſalt and cayenne pepper. Reſuming their work, they continue in the field till noon, when an interval of two hours is allowed for repoſe and refreſhment. The addition of ſalted fiſh to their vegetable meſſes commonly furniſhes their dinner. At two o'clock they return again to the field, and work till ſunſet. In concluſion, they have probably been employed about ten hours in the day; during which, the moſt diligent of them has not executed more than one third of the common daily toil of an Engliſh farmer's labourer. Every proprietor is compelled by law to cultivate in ground proviſions (of courſe indeſtructible by hurricanes) one acre for every ten negroes, beſide the allotment of negro territory. To cultivate this allotment, one day in every fortnight belongs to the ſlaves, excluſive of Sundays and holidays. Thus they raiſe vegetables, poultry, pigs, or goats, which they conſume, beſtow, or ſell. While ſome raiſe proviſions, others fabricate coarſe chairs, baſkets, or common tables. Theſe are bartered at market for ſalted meat, or pickled fiſh, utenſils, or gaudy dreſſes, of which they are fond. Their right of property in what they thus acquire is never queſtioned, but ſeems completely eſtabliſhed by cuſtom. The cottages of the negroes on a plantation are uſually conſtructed on riſing ground, near a ſupply of pure water: the group reſembles a hamlet: tropical trees, which many of them plant about their habitations, ſhelter it, and diverſify its appearance. In ſtructure and comfort theſe cottages certainly ſurpaſs the cabins of the Iriſh peaſants. A ſingle cottage, for a man and his wife, is about twenty feet in length, divided into two apartments: it is compoſed of hard poſts driven into the ground, interlaced with wattles, and plaiſtered: the floor is commonly of dry native earth: the roof is ſo well thatched with palm or cocoa leaves, as to be impervious both to ſun and rain. Their cookery is conducted in the open air: they generally kindle a fire within doors at night, without which negroes cannot ſleep comfortably. The negroes of Jamaica receive an annual allowance of Oznaburg linen, woollen baize, checks; and at other times, knives, needles, thread, &c.

But the moſt liberal allowance of the proprietors is made for medical and ſurgical aſſiſtance, and accommodation for their ſlaves when ſick. Every plantation is provided with a commodious building, divided for an hoſpital. The ſick are daily viſited by profeſſional gentlemen, of ſcience and ſkill, who are well paid for conſtant attention; and in extraordinary caſes the uſual comforts of the European diet, ſuch as wine, gruel, &c. are ſuperadded: ſo that the ſituation of the ſick and the aged, for whom perpetual proviſion is made, commonly makes them ſome amends for the ſervitude they have undergone. The uſual labour of the old men is confined to watching the proviſion grounds; and that of the old women to nurſing thoſe that are ſick, and attending young children. Another ſource of ſolace for the ſuperannuated is found in the univerſal veneration with which old age is treated by the African race. Accuſed, as they juſtly may be, of brutality to cattle, which they are prone to maltreat, to their aged people they are benevolent and reſpectful. *Ta quaco* and *ma quaſheba* (my father and my mother) are terms that denote filial reverence and fondneſs: in theſe terms the old negroes are ever accoſted by the whole body of the younger, who muſt be in great diſtreſs themſelves if they fail to adminiſter to their wants, and mingle ſuccour and comfort with affection and veneration for the aged.

The general diffuſion and warmth of this dutiful ſentiment is the more remarkable in a people attached to the ſyſtem of polygamy. This appropriation of women, which univerſally prevails in Africa, is alſo very generally adopted in the Weſt Indies. In Jamaica alone it is computed, that ten thouſand of thoſe leading ſlaves called head negroes, that is, drivers, coopers, carpenters, &c. poſſeſs from two to four wives. This practice, ſo pernicious in many points of view, has contributed to create ſuch a diſproportion in the number of the two ſexes, that there exiſts in Jamaica an exceſs of above thirty thouſand male negroes. There are ten thouſand people of colour in Jamaica. Theſe deſcendants of negroes by white people are among the moſt robuſt of our race; and their qualities, both of body and mind, are ſuppoſed by many impartial individuals to be well adapted for exerciſe and improvement in all the tropical regions. But they are not entitled to the civil and political rights of a natural born ſubject, until removed above three degrees from the negro; and although there are diſtinctions of name, following blood and complexion, ſuch as ſamboes, mulattoes, meſtiſs, &c. the law of Jamaica contemplates the whole body as mulattoes. Their legal capacities are very imperfectly defined. Their principal incapacities, diſtinguiſhing them from the whites, are theſe: in criminal caſes their evidence is inadmiſſible againſt a white: they are ineligible to ſerve in parochial veſtries, or general aſſemblies: they are incapable of acting in any office of public truſt, or of holding any commiſſion in the militia; and when born out of wedlock, they cannot take and hold by deviſe property real or perſonal that exceeds in value 200l currency. But theſe reſtrictions are often removed by particular acts of the legiſlature in favour of individuals. The fidelity and loyalty of the people of colour is unimpeached: their attachment to the whites is uniform and ſincere: their progreſs in knowledge, being animated by no encouragement, has been ſlow; but if a juſt eſtimate may be formed of the capabilities of this race from inſulated examples of merit among them, their faculties are worthy of better cultivation and completer developement.

The white population of Jamaica has been computed at about thirty thouſand ſouls. Of this number, a very conſiderable portion conſiſts of native Europeans; and of thoſe born on the iſland many have been educated in the mother country. Yet notwithſtanding theſe migrations and ſuch reſidence in Europe, climate and moral

cauſes combining with political inſtitutions and the peculiar ſtate of ſociety in the Weſt Indies, have created a caſt of character that may be diſtinguiſhed, and is ſufficiently marked, in the native white Creoles of Jamaica. Maſters of ſlaves, they are jealous and proud of their own freedom, which is to them not merely an enjoyment, but a dignity and rank. Hence throughout all claſſes of them, there is diffuſed and diſplayed an independence of ſpirit combined with a certain conſciouſneſs of equality unknown to the European communities.

Many cauſes of national character are ſo mixed as to be almoſt inſcrutrable. It may, perhaps, be partly aſcribed to the ſenſibility that a warm climate excites, that creoles are ſaid to be impatient of ſubordination, and addicted to juridical controverſy. But if ſome be litigious, others oſtentatious, and many extravagant, in general it may be truly affirmed of them as a race, that they are bright, intrepid, frank, and intelligent; actuated by a high ſenſe of honour, eminent for hoſpitality, diſtinguiſhed by vivacity, and nobly generous.

Description *of the* Spanish Chasseurs *and* Blood Hounds.

[From the Same.]

THE dogs carried out by the chaſſeurs du Rey are perfectly broken in, that is to ſay, they will not kill the object they purſue unleſs reſiſted. On coming up with a fugitive, they bark at him till he ſtops, they then couch near him, terrifying him with a ferocious growling if he ſtirs: in this poſition they continue barking, to give notice to the chaſſeurs, who come up and ſecure their priſoner. Each chaſſeur, though he can hunt only with two dogs properly, is obliged to have three, which he maintains at his own coſt, and that at no ſmall expence. Theſe people live with their dogs, from which they are inſeparable. At home, the dogs are kept chained, and when walking with their maſters, are never unmuzzled, or let out of ropes, but for attack. They are conſtantly accompanied with one or two ſmall dogs called finders, whoſe ſcent is very keen, and always ſure of hitting off a track. Dogs and bitches hunt equally well, and the chaſſeurs rear no more than will ſupply the number required: this breed of dogs, indeed, is not ſo prolific as the common kinds, though infinitely ſtronger and hardier. The animal is the ſize of a very large hound, with ears erect, which are uſually cropped at the points; the noſe more pointed, but widening very much toward the after part of the jaw. His coat, or ſkin, is much harder than that of moſt dogs, and ſo muſt be the whole ſtructure of the body, as the ſevere beatings he undergoes in training would kill any other ſpecies of dog. There are ſome, but not many, of a more obtuſe noſe, and which are rather ſquarer ſet: theſe, it may be preſumed, have been croſſed by the maſtiff; but if by this the bulk has been a little increaſed, it has added nothing to the ſtrength, height, beauty, or agility, of the native breed.

The chaſſeur has no other weapon than a long ſtraight muſchet, or couteau, longer than a dragoon's ſword, and twice as thick, ſomething like a flat iron bar ſharpened at the lower end, of which about eighteen inches are as ſharp as a razor. The point is not unlike the old Roman ſword. The ſteel of them is excellent, and made at Guanabacoa, about three miles from the Havanna. The handle of the muſchet is without a guard, but ſcolloped to admit the fingers and ſuit the graſp. Theſe men are under an officer of high rank, the Alcade Provinciale, and receive a good pay from the government, beſide private rewards for particular and extraordinary ſervices. They are a very hardy, brave, and deſperate, ſet of people,

ſcrupulouſly honeſt, and remarkably faithful.

A body of men of the ſame deſcription and character reſide at Beſucal, within the Marquiſa's juriſdiction. Theſe are not in the king's pay, but are chiefly employed, like the Maroons in Jamaica, in ſcouring the mountains of this extenſive country, to take runaways, for which they have a fixed reward, and to attack all bodies of negroes collected for hoſtile purpoſes, which is ſometimes occaſioned by the rigour exerciſed on the Spaniſh plantations: for although in other employments, and particularly in domeſtic ſervice, the ſlaves are treated kindly, and live a very eaſy life, it muſt be owned that the ſtate of ſlavery on the ſettlements is not unattended with ſeverity. The greateſt commotions, however, have been occaſioned by Spaniſh piety. Many of the largeſt and beſt ſugar eſtates in the iſland of Cuba belong to the different eccleſiaſtical orders, who are the moſt rapacious of planters. Under the maſk of diſcouraging a vicious intercourſe with the ſexes, ſome of them religiouſly reſolved to purchaſe only male negroes: a devout auſterity impoſed upon the poor fellows which, would the good fathers candidly confeſs it, would appear to originate in the temporal policy of 'quærenda pecunia primum eſt,' it being thought that men can do more work than women. Deprived of connexions reſulting from one of the chief laws of nature, and driven to deſperation, the unhappy negroes, not unlike the firſt Romans, have been known to fly to neighbouring eſtates, ſeize on the women, and carry them off to the mountains: there, in order to ſecure and defend themſelves, they fell upon ſome Spaniards, killed them, and thus procuring a few fire-arms, lances, and cutlaſſes, attempted to make a reſiſtance againſt the laws, but in vain; a few of the Beſucal people, with their dogs, have always proved an overmatch for them.

The activity of the chaſſeurs no negro on earth can elude; and ſuch is their temperance, that with a few ounces of ſalt for each, they can ſupport themſelves for whole months on the vegetable and farinaceous food afforded by the woods. They drink nothing ſtronger than water, with which, when at a diſtance from ſprings, they are copiouſly ſupplied by the wild pine, by the black and grape withes, which are about two inches in diameter, and the roots of the cotton-tree. Of the laſt, ſix feet junked off the ſmaller part of the root, where it tapers to the thickneſs of a man's thigh, will yield ſeveral gallons of water: in the greateſt drought theſe reſources ſeldom fail. For the wild pine they are obliged to climb trees, but that they do almoſt with the velocity of a monkey: this plant takes root on the body of a tree, and the leaves of it are ſo formed as to catch the rain and conduct it to a reſervoir at the baſe, where, being never expoſed to the ſun, it is found delightfully freſh and cool. But the eaſieſt method of obtaining water in the woods, and with leſs delay on a march, is from the black and grape withes: it is done with greater expedition than drinking at a ſpring. The chaſſeur catches a pendent withe, which, with his muſchet, he divides about two feet from the ground, and applies the end of the withe, as it hangs, to his mouth, or to his dog's, who indicates his thirſt; he then cuts the withe off, about ſix feet higher, keeping the upper end elevated, when, the air being admitted above, he receives through the porous fibres of it near a quart of delightful cold water. With reſpect to animal food, if any of them happen to deſire it, they find no difficulty in obtaining it. The little finder, if ſet on, but not otherwiſe, will ſoon bay one of the wild hogs with which the woods abound: the animal, retreating for ſhelter to the trunk of a tree, is immediately transfixed with a lance. The men cure as much of the fleſh as they think they will have occaſion for, by ſcoring

it internally to the ſkin, ſprinkling it with ſalt, and ſmoking it; over the ſmoke they throw ſome aromatic leaves, which not only add to its flavour, but aſſiſt in preſerving it. The meat thus cured will keep for months, and is eſteemed a very great dainty by the moſt refined epicures. It is in fact the jirked hog. The part of the hog not preſerved is given to the dogs. The purſuit of the game is entirely the province of the finder; the larger dogs, from their training, would paſs a hog without notice; were one of them to bark at a hog he would be ſeverely puniſhed. The chaſſeurs beat their dogs moſt unmercifully, uſing the flat ſides of their heavy muſchets. When they are going out on ſervice, the large chains in which they are kept at home are taken off, and a light, but well-twiſted, cotton rope ſubſtituted, to which the muzzle and collar, joined together, are attached at one end, while the other is fixed to the belt of the chaſſeur, who, when a purſuit is to be made, ſlips them off, ſecuring them round his waiſt, with the rope to which they are tied, draws his muſchet, and puſhes forward nearly as faſt as his dogs; for the latter are impeded by the underwood, and are ſometimes ſo entangled as to require the aſſiſtance of their maſters to cut their way through the difficulty which obſtructs their proceeding. The greateſt privation felt by a chaſſeur in ſervice is, the want of a ſegar, which he muſt not uſe in the woods, where the ſcent, from the freſhneſs of the trees and ſtillneſs of the air, continues long ſuſpended, and is gradually ſpread in the atmoſphere, by which the company could not but be betrayed, in ſpite of the great ſilence which they obſerve on their marches. At other times the ſegar is hardly ever out of their mouths.

I muſt now complete your idea of a Spaniſh chaſſeur, by giving you a deſcription of his dreſs. You may imagine it will be brief, for the wearer is not a man of faſhion, and he lives beneath a vertical ſun. A check ſhirt open at the collar ſo as to expoſe the neck, from which hangs a ſmall crucifix, a wide pair of trowſers, alſo check, a ſtraw hat, or rather one manufactured of the moraſs thatch divided into ſmall filaments, ſeven or eight inches in the rim, with a ſhallow round crown, and very light, add his belt and ſword, already deſcribed, and a pair of untanned leather ſhoes; into this dreſs put a man with a Spaniſh countenance, ſwarthy but animated, a perſon above the middle ſize, thin but not meagre; to his belt affix the cotton ropes, and imagine them attached by collars round the necks of his dogs, and you will have a finiſhed picture of him.

Beſide his untanned ſhoe, the chaſſeur often contrives in the woods a curious defence for his feet which is greatly preferable. Having ſkinned the thighs and hocks of the wild hog, he thruſts his foot into the raw hide, as far as he can force it, then cuts a ſmall ſlip at the inſtep, and with his knife takes off the ſuperfluous ſkin behind, adapting the remainder to his ancle and the lower part of his leg: the pliant hide takes the ſhape of a cloſe ſhort half-boot, ſitting like a glove on the foot, with a lengthened uſeleſs projection beyond the toe, ſomething reſembling the modern faſhion of our beaux: this contrivance will laſt a march of weeks, or months; but once taken off, the ſkin dries, ſhrivels, and becomes uſeleſs. There are *porco zapatos*, made of dried hides, that reach to the calf of the leg, but they are wide, hard, and not pliant to the feet.

The Beſucal chaſſeurs had not above ſeventy dogs properly broke: the others, of which they had many, though of the ſame breed, will kill the object they purſue: they fly at the throat, or other part, of a man, and never quit their hold till they are cut in two. Theſe dogs, however, are ſeldom, if ever, carried out till perfectly trained.

An ACCOUNT *of ſome* STONES *ſaid to have fallen on the Earth in* France; *and of a* LUMP *of* NATIVE IRON, *ſaid to have fallen in* India. *By the Right Hon.* Charles Greville, F. R. S.

[From the Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society, for 1803.]

THE experiments and obſervations made by Edward Howard, eſq. on certain ſtony and metalline ſubſtances ſaid to have fallen on the earth, and the accurate deſcription which the count de Bournon has given of thoſe ſubſtances *, have, in my opinion, fully eſtabliſhed the following fact, namely, that a number of ſtones aſſerted to have fallen under ſimilar circumſtances, have preciſely the ſame characters.

The ſtones from Benares, that from Yorkſhire, that from Sienna, and that from Bohemia, were the whole which had then been ſeen in England. They all contain pyrites of a peculiar character: they all had a coating of black oxide of iron: they all contained an alloy of iron and nickel; and the earths which ſerved to them as a ſort of connecting medium, correſponded in their nature, and nearly in their proportions.

Since the publication of Mr. Howard's and count de Bournon's obſervations, I have received from France three additional ſpecimens. Monſieur St. Amand very obligingly divided with me a ſpecimen he had broken from a ſtone of about 15 inches diameter, preſerved in the Muſeum of Bourdeaux, which ſtone fell near Roqueford, in the Landes, on the 20th Auguſt, 1789, during the exploſion of a meteor; it broke through the roof a cottage, and killed a herdſman and ſome cattle. M St. Amand alſo gave me a part of a ſtone he had preſerved in his collection ever ſince the year 1790, when a ſhower of ſtones, weighing from ¼ an ounce to 15 and 25 pounds each, fell in the pariſhes of Grange and Creon, and alſo in the pariſh of Juliac, in Armagnac: which fact was, at the time, verified by Duby, mayor of Armile, and publiſhed by Bertholon, in the *Journal des Sciences utiles de Montpellier*, in the year 1790.

The third ſpecimen, I owe to the marquis de Dree; it is a fragment, broken from a ſtone of 22 pounds weight, which fell near the village Salles, not far from Villefranche in Burgundy, on the 12th of March, 1798. This was alſo accompanied by a meteor.

I content myſelf with the mere recital of the facts, in confirmation of the obſervations preſented to the ſociety, as theſe three additional ſpecimens have preciſely the ſame characters, texture, and appearance, as the others in my collection; and are ſcarcely, by the eye, to be diſtinguiſhed from them.

I ſhould not, perhaps, have troubled the ſociety with this account, as my friend the marquis de Dree, whoſe knowledge in mineralogy peculiarly qualifies him to inveſtigate theſe ſubjects, has giving me hopes of ſeeing his obſervations on them publiſhed; but a new evidence has lately fallen into my hands, and is the only one I have met with that aſcertains the origin of native iron, which, from analyſis, had been ſuſpected to have a common origin with the ſtones fallen on the earth. Converſing with colonel Kirkpatrick, whoſe reſearches have embraced both the literature and politics of India, and whoſe talents had placed him in very important ſituations in various parts of India, I inquired whether he had ever heard of any inſtances ſimilar to the exploſion of the meteor at Benares in 1798. He told me, he could not recollect

* See theſe Obſervations, &c. in our Magazine, vol. xii, page 25.

having heard or read of any other inſtance, excepting one in the Memoirs written by the emperor Jehangire, and of that he did not recollect the particulars. A few days after, having found the paſſage in the original Perſian, he was ſo obliging as to tranſlate it. I conſider it as an authentic fact; for the emperor Jehangire was not a prince on whom his courtiers would idly venture to impoſe; and there can be little probability that an aumil of a diſtrict ſhould invent ſuch a ſtory, or be able to produce a ſubſtance apparently like iron, but which, on trial, differed from manufactured iron. Colonel Kirkpatrick's tranſlation, I have obtained his leave to communicate, with his atteſtation, to the royal ſociety.

Extract from the Memoirs of the Emperor Jehangire, written (in Perſian) by himſelf, and tranſlated by Colonel Kirkpatrick.

A. H. 1030, *or* 16*th year of the reign.*—The following is among the extraordinary occurrences of this period.

Early on the 30th of Furverdeen, of the preſent year *, and in the eaſtern quarter [of the heavens] there aroſe in one of the villages of the purgunnah of Jalindher †, ſuch a great and tremendous noiſe as had nearly, by its dreadful nature, deprived the inhabitants of the place of their ſenſes. During this noiſe, a luminous body [was obſerved] to fall from above on the earth, ſuggeſting to the beholders the idea that the firmament was raining fire. In a ſhort time, the noiſe having ſubſided, and the inhabitants having recovered from their alarm, a courier was diſpatched [by them] to Mahommed Syeed, the aumil ‡ of the aforeſaid purgunnah, to advertiſe him of this event. The aumil, inſtantly mounting [his horſe], proceeded to the ſpot [where the luminous body had fallen]. Here he perceived the earth, to the extent of ten or twelve guz ‖, in length and breadth, to be burnt to ſuch a degree, that not the leaſt trace of verdure, or a blade of graſs remained; nor had the heat [which had been communicated to it] yet ſubſided entirely.

Mahommed Syeed hereupon directed the aforeſaid ſpace of ground to be dug up; when, the deeper it was dug the greater was the heat of it found to be. At length, a lump of iron made its appearance, the heat of which was ſo violent, that one might have ſuppoſed it to have been taken from a furnace. After ſome time it became cold; when the aumil conveyed it to his own habitation, from whence he afterward diſpatched it, in a ſealed bag, to court.

Here I had [this ſubſtance] weighed in my preſence. Its weight was one hundred and ſixty tolahs §. I committed it to a ſkilful artiſan, with orders to make of it a ſabre, a knife, and a dagger. The workman [ſoon] reported, that the ſubſtance was *not malleable, but ſhivered into pieces under the hammer* **.

Upon this, I ordered it to be mixed with other iron. Conformably to my orders, three parts of the *iron of lightning* †† were mixed with one part of common iron; and from the mixture were made two ſabres, one knife, and one dagger.

By the addition of the common

* The firſt of Furverdeen of this year (A. H. 1030), correſponded with Saturday, the 27th of Rubbi ul Akhir; conſequently, the 30th of Furverdeen fell on the 26th of Jummad ul Ouwul, or A. D. 1620.

† A purgunnah is a territorial diviſion, of arbitrary extent. The purgunnah of Jalindher is ſituate in the Punjaub, and about 100 miles SE of Lahore.

‡ Aumil is a manager or fiſcal ſuperintendant of a diſtrict.

‖ A guz is rather leſs than a yard.

§ A tolah is about 180 grains, Troy weight.

** Literally, 'it did not ſtand beneath the hammer, but fell to pieces.'

†† This expreſſion is equivalent to our term *thunder-bolt.*

iron, the [new] ſubſtance acquired a fine temper; the blade [fabricated from it] proving as elaſtic as the moſt genuine blades of Ulmanny *, and of the ſouth, and bending, like them, without leaving any mark of the bend. I had them tried in my preſence, and found them cut excellently; as well [indeed] as the beſt genuine ſabres. One of theſe ſabres I named *Katai*, or *the cutter*; and the other, *Burk-ſeriſht*, or the *lightning-natured*.

A poet † compoſed and preſented to me, on this occaſion, the following tetraſtich.

'This earth has attained order and 'regularity through the emperor Je-'hangire:

'In his time fell *raw* iron from 'lightning:

'That iron was, by his world-'ſubduing authority,

'Converted into a dagger, a knife, 'and two ſabres.'

The chronogram of this occurrence is contained in Perſian words which ſignify 'the flame of the imperial lightning;' and give the year (of the Hegera) 1030.

N. B. The foregoing tranſlation (which is nearly literal) has been made from a manuſcript that has been ſeveral years in my poſſeſſion; and which, although without date, bears marks of having been written at a remote period.

WM. KIRKPATRICK.

* The name of the place here deſigned is doubtful.

† The poet is named in the original; but the name is not perfectly legible.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* STRUCTURE *of the* TONGUE; *illuſtrated by Caſes in which a Portion of that Organ has been removed by Ligature.* *By* Everard Home, *Eſq.* F. R. S.

[From the SAME.]

PHYSIOLOGICAL inquiries have ever been conſidered as deſerving the attention of this learned ſociety; and, whenever medical practitioners, in the treatment of diſeaſes, have met with any circumſtance which threw light upon the natural ſtructure or actions of any of the organs of the human body, or thoſe of other animals, their communications have met with a favourable reception.

The following obſervations derive their real importance from offering a ſafe and effectual means of removing a portion of the tongue, when that organ has taken on a diſeaſed action, the cure of which is not within the reach of medicine; and, as the tongue, like many other glandular ſtructures, is liable to be affected by cancer, it becomes of no ſmall importance that the fact ſhould be generally known. In a phyſiological view, they tend to ſhow, that the internal ſtructure of the tongue is not of that delicate and ſenſible nature which, from its being the organ of taſte, we ſhould be led to imagine.

The tongue is made up of faſciculi of muſcular fibres, with an intermediate ſubſtance met with in no other part of the body, and a vaſt number of ſmall glands; it has large nerves paſſing through it; and the tip poſſeſſes great ſenſibility, fitting it for the purpoſe of taſte.

Whether the ſenſe of taſte is confined entirely to the point of the tongue, and the other parts are made up of muſcles fitted for giving it motion; or whether the whole tongue is to be conſidered as the organ, and the ſoft matter which pervades its ſubſtance, and fills the interſtices between the faſciculi of muſcular fibres, is to be conſidered as connected with ſenſation, has not, I believe, been aſcertained.

The tongue, throughout its ſubſtance, has always been conſidered by

phyſiologiſts as a very delicate organ; and it was believed, that any injury committed upon it would not only produce great local irritation, but alſo affect, in a violent degree, the general ſyſtem of the body. This was my own opinion, till I met with the following caſe, the circumſtances of which induced me to ſee this organ in a different point of view.

A gentleman, by an accident which it is unneceſſary to deſcribe, had his tongue bitten with great violence. The immediate effect of the injury was great local pain; but it was not attended with much ſwelling of the tongue itſelf, nor any other ſymptom, except that the point of the tongue entirely loſt its ſenſibility, which deprived it of the power of taſte: whatever ſubſtance the patient eat was equally inſipid. This alarmed him very much, and induced him to ſtate to me the circumſtances of his caſe, and requeſt my opinion. I examined the tongue, a fortnight after the accident. It had the natural appearance, but the tip was completely inſenſible, and was like a piece of board in his mouth, rendering the act of eating a very unpleaſant operation. I ſaw him three months afterward, and it was ſtill in nearly the ſame ſtate.

From this caſe it appears, that the tongue itſelf is not particularly irritable; but the nerves paſſing through its ſubſtance to ſupply the tip, which forms the organ of taſte, are very readily deprived of their natural action: this probably ariſes from their being ſofter in texture than nerves in general, and, in that reſpect, reſembling thoſe belonging to the other organs of ſenſe.

There was another circumſtance in this caſe which very particularly ſtruck my attention, viz. that a bruiſe upon the nerves of the tongue, ſufficient to deprive them of the power of communicating ſenſation, was productive of no inflammation or irritation in the nervous trunk, ſo as to induce ſpaſms, which too commonly occur from injuries to the nerves belonging to voluntary muſcles. I am therefore led to believe, that the nerves ſupplying an organ of ſenſe, are not ſo liable to ſuch effects as thoſe which belong to the other parts of the body.

The ſmall degree of miſchief which was produced, and the readineſs with which the nerves had their communication completely cut off, were to me new facts, and encouraged me, in the following caſe of fungous excreſcence from the tongue, which bled ſo profuſely as at times to endanger the patient's life, and never allowed him to arrive at a ſtate of tolerable health, to attempt removing the part by ligature.

John Weymouth, eight years of age, was admitted into St. George's hoſpital, on the 24th of December, 1800, on account of a fungous excreſcence on the right ſide of the anterior part of the tongue, which extended nearly from the outer edge to the middle line at the tip. It appeared, from the account of his relations, that the origin of this fungus exiſted at his birth, and had been increaſing ever ſince. He had been a year and a half under the care of the late Mr. Cruikſhank, who had removed the excreſcence by ligature round its baſe; but, when the ligature dropped off, a violent hæmorrhage took place, and the excreſcence gradually returned. Attempts were made to deſtroy it by cauſtic; but hæmorrhage always followed the ſeparation of the ſloughs; ſo that, after ten trials, this mode was found ineffectual. It was alſo removed by the knife, ten different times, but always returned.

From this hiſtory I was led to believe, that the only mode of removing the diſeaſe was taking out the portion of the tongue upon which it grew. This was a caſe in which I felt myſelf warranted in making an attempt out of the common line of practice, to give the patient a chance of recovery; and, from the preceding caſe,

having found that preſſure on one part of the tongue produced no bad conſequences on the other parts, I was led to remove the excreſcence in the following manner.

On the 28th of December, I made the boy hold out his tongue, and paſſed a crooked needle, armed with a double ligature, directly through its ſubſtance, immediately beyond the excreſcence. The needle was brought out below, leaving the ligatures: one of theſe was tied very tight before the excreſcence, the other equally ſo beyond it, ſo that a ſegment of the tongue was confined between theſe two ligatures, in which the circulation was completely ſtopped. The tongue was thin in its ſubſtance; and the boy complained of little pain during the operation. Thirty drops of laudanum were given to him immediately after it, and he was put to bed. He fell aſleep, continued to doſe the greater part of the day, and was ſo eaſy the next day as to require no particular attention. On the fifth day from the operation, the portion of tongue came away with the ligatures, leaving a ſloughy ſurface, which was thrown off on the 11th day, and was ſucceeded by a ſimilar ſlough; this ſeparated on the 15th day. The excavation after this gradually filled up; and, on the 20th day, it was completely cicatrized, leaving only a ſmall fiſſure on that ſide of the tongue.

Encouraged by the reſult of this caſe, I was led to perform a ſimilar operation upon a perſon at a more advanced period of life.

Margaret Dalton, 40 years of age, was admitted into St. George's hoſpital, on the 25th of December, 1801, on account of a tumour, the ſize of a pea, ſituate on the right ſide of the tongue, near its edge. The hiſtory of the caſe was as follows. A ſmall pimple appeared, and gradually increaſed, without pain; the only inconvenience was, that it affected her ſpeech, and, when bruiſed by the teeth, bled freely.

The operation was performed on the 11th of January, 1802, in exactly the ſame manner as has been already deſcribed. It produced a conſiderable degree of ſalivation, which was extremely troubleſome (much more ſo than the pain the ligatures produced), and continued till the ſlough came away. The ligature neareſt the root of the tongue ſeparated on the 6th day; the other on the 7th; and, in three days after the ſeparation of the ſecond ligature, the wound was completely ſkinned over.

A third caſe of this kind came under my obſervation, in which there was a ſmall tumour in the ſubſtance of the tongue, about the ſize of a pea, which gave me the idea of its being of that kind which might terminate in a cancer. The patient was a gentleman of about 41 years of age. Upon examining the tumour, I told him of my alarm reſpecting its nature; and at the ſame time added, that I was very ready to remove it, ſhould it be the opinion of other practitioners that ſuch a ſtep was adviſeable; and my experience in two former caſes led me to believe it might be done with ſafety. I therefore adviſed him to conſult other medical practitioners of reputation, and acquaint me with their opinion. Mr. Cline was conſulted, and his opinion coincided with mine; which made the patient decide upon having the tumour removed.

The operation was performed on the 28th of December, 1802. The needle pierced the tongue an inch beyond the tip, a little to the right of the middle line of the tongue; and the ſpace between the two ligatures, when they were tied at the circumference of the tongue, was fully an inch. The tongue was thick; and the maſs included by the ligatures was ſuch as to make it difficult to compreſs it. The operation gave conſiderable pain, of a numbing kind. Immediately after the operation, the part included became dark coloured, particularly toward the middle line of the tongue. A ſali-

vation took place. The next day, the pain and ſalivation were great, and the patient could not ſwallow; but, on the day following, he could take broth, negus, and other fluids.

On the 6th day from the operation, the ſlough became looſe; and the leaſt motion of the tongue gave great pain. Upon examining the ſlough, there was a ſmall ſpot which looked red, and was ſurrounded by a dark ſurface; this was toward the right ſide. Upon further examination it appeared, that the ligature to the right had not completely deadened the part at the centre, in which the artery had its courſe. This accounted for the red ſpot, as well as for the pain the patient ſuffered; and led me, on the ſeventh day, to diſengage the ligature on the left (which was almoſt completely ſeparated), by means of a pair of ſciſſors, and paſs another ligature through the groove to the oppoſite ſide, and tie it over the part not completely deadened. This gave great pain for a few hours, which was relieved by the uſe of tincture of opium. On the 8th day, the patient had leſs pain than on any preceding day, and leſs ſalivation; and, on the 9th, the whole ſlough came away. On the 13th, the tongue had ſo much recovered itſelf, that there did not appear any loſs of ſubſtance whatever, only a fiſſure of half an inch in depth, in the anterior part of it; and, as that now ſeemed to be exactly in the centre, there was not the ſmalleſt deformity.

The preceding caſes, in the view which it is intended to take in the preſent paper, are to be conſidered as ſo many experiments, by which the ſtructure of the tongue is in ſome reſpects aſcertained: they enable us to draw the following concluſions.

The internal ſtructure of the tongue is leſs irritable than almoſt any other organized part of the body; therefore, the peculiar ſubſtance which is interpoſed between the faſciculi of its muſcular fibres, is not in any reſpect connected with the nerves which paſs through its ſubſtance to the organ of taſte, but is merely a ſoft medium, to admit of great facility of action in its different parts.

The nerves of the tongue appear to be more readily compreſſed, and deprived of their power of communicating ſenſation, than nerves in general; and any injury done to them is not productive of diſeaſed action in the trunk of the injured nerve.

If we compare the effects of compreſſion upon a portion of the tongue, with thoſe of a ſimilar compreſſion upon the hæmorrhoidal veins when they form piles, or thoſe of the teſticle in caſes of varicoſe veins of the ſpermatic chord, which not only produce very violent local inflammation, but alſo a conſiderable degree of ſymptomatic fever, it is impoſſible not to be ſurpriſed that the reſults ſhould be ſo very different; ſince we are led to believe, upon a general principle, that parts are ſenſible in proportion to their vaſcularity, and that all the organs of ſenſe, when inflamed, are more exquiſitely ſo than any other parts of the body.

The tongue appears to have a power of throwing off its ſloughs in a ſhorter time than any other part. Eight or nine days is the ordinary time of a ſlough ſeparating from the common parts: in the boy's tongue, it was only five.

Having ſtated the information we derive from theſe caſes, reſpecting the ſtructure, ſenſibility, and irritability of the tongue, it now remains to mention the advantage to be derived from them in a profeſſional view; and, although this is not directly in the line of the purſuits of this learned ſociety, yet, ſo ſtrongly is it connected with humanity, that it cannot be ſaid to be foreign to them, or undeſerving their attention.

The information derived from theſe caſes, enables us to attempt with ſafety, the removal of any part of the tongue which may have taken on a diſpoſition to become cancerous. As this diſeaſe in the tongue always

begins in a very ſmall portion of that organ, it is, in the early ſtage, more within the reach of removal than when in any other part of the body; and, as the glands of the tongue are independent of each other, the cancerous diſpoſition by which one of them is attacked, does not ſo readily communicate itſelf to the others; and the part may be removed, with a greater degree of ſecurity againſt a future recurrence of the diſeaſe, than in other caſes where this malady attacks a portion of a large gland, the whole of which may be under the influence of the poiſon, long before there is any appearance of its being diſeaſed.

OBSERVATIONS ON A LIVING OPOSSUM.

[By Profeſſor BLUMENBACH.]

SOME months ago I obtained that wonder of all the land animals, as Mr. Lawſon calls it, for which I was indebted to the kindneſs of an American friend, Dr. Tidyman, of Charleſtown, in South Carolina.

It is about as large as a middle-ſized cat. Its head is ſhaped like that of the fox: but its long ſnout, and the bare fleſh-coloured noſe turned ſomewhat upward almoſt in the form of a ſnout, are nearly like thoſe of a pig. The aperture of the mouth is exceedingly wide: the lower jaw is perceptibly ſhorter than the upper; and the upper angular teeth, even when the mouth is ſhut, are viſible. The head is white, with a faint blackiſh ſtripe along the forehead, and the part between the fore corners of the eyes and the ſnout is of the ſame colour. Both ſides of the mouth, and in particular the chin, are furniſhed with a great many long ſtiff hairs. The pupil of the eye is ſmall, but the cornea is proportionally large and exceedingly convex, ſo that very little of the white of the eye can be ſeen; and this, with the dark brown colour of the iris, gives to the animal a lively appearance. Of a *membrana nictitans*, as among the quadrumana, ſcarcely any rudiment is to be ſeen. The ears are large, black, naked, and, according to appearance, merely membranous, without any cartilaginous folds, and therefore nearly like thoſe of the bat; in my animal alſo, without the white border which is aſcribed to others of this genus.

The neck is ſhort and thick, and the ſame is the caſe with the rump, which is well covered with hair. Sometimes the hair on the back is long and erect, almoſt as in the badger; its colour is white mixed with black, and darkeſt on the ſhoulders.

The bag on the belly is very apparent by its prominence, eſpecially when the ſingular *oſſa marſupialia* or *cornua pelvis abdominalia* lie under it. The place of its aperture is marked only by a longitudinal fiſſure.

The tail is about the length of the body; it is almoſt naked, and as ſcaly as that of the rat, but a real *cauda prehenſilis*.

The ſhoulders and fore legs are black, and covered with ſoft hair. The toes are naked, and of a fleſh colour. The hind feet are furniſhed with detached toes with a ſmall flat nail, but on all the other toes there are hooked claws of a white colour.

It is a real *animal omnivorum*, and can feed upon any kind of fruit; it is fondeſt of plums, and of other food, next to fleſh, of fowl, game, and in particular of ſoup and bouilli. It chews its food with great deliberation, and catches the large pieces very dexterouſly with its fore feet; and it uſes theſe feet with great addreſs for dreſſing its ſnout, on which occaſions it ſits on its hind legs like a ſquirrel.

Its cry, which it ſeldom emits except when irritated, is a weak kind of grunting. It drinks very little, and ſometimes not for ſeveral days. It

ſeldom makes water, and, even when in good health, voids its excrements only once in four or five days. It however does neither in the place where it lies, but always retires to a corner of its kennel.

In general it preſerves itſelf very clean; and on the whole is a quiet, good-natured animal; ſlow, and as it were, cautious in all its motions; and of ſo ſtrong a conſtitution, that the people in America are accuſtomed to ſay, 'If a cat, according to the proverb, has nine lives, the opoſſum has nineteen.'

The THIRD GENERATION *of the* PORCUPINE MAN.

[By the Same.]

THE well-known aſtronomer J. Machin gave in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1732 the firſt account of a boy of 14 years of age, afterward called the *porcupine man*, whoſe whole ſkin, the head, the palms of the hand, and the ſoles of the feet excepted, was covered with corneous pegs, which gave the body an appearance as if covered with a coat of mail. He was not born with this cuticular deformity, which firſt made its appearance ſeven or eight weeks after birth, at which period the ſkin became yellow, and gradually continued to grow darker, till at length it became black, and ſoon after thicker and more corneous.

In his fiftieth year this man, who was now married and a father, exhibited himſelf in London, together with his ſon, who had the ſame deformity of ſkin. The celebrated Baker, who wrote on the microſcope, gave at that time, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, an appendix to M. Machin's paper; and as the latter had given a repreſentation of the hand of the father, the former gave a figure of that of the ſon from a drawing, an engraving of which may be ſeen alſo in Edwards' Gleanings of Natural Hiſtory, p. 1, tab. 212.

This ſon afterward married; and in the month of September 1801 I ſaw two of his ſons, perfectly like their father and grandfather, and conſequently the third generation of this family, ſo ſingular on account of this cuticular deformity.

The oldeſt was twenty-two years of age and married; the younger was fourteen. Both were ſtout, well made, and of an athletic conſtitution. The older was a good pugiliſt like his grandfather, who is ſaid to have excelled in this gymnaſtic art. His face, the palms of the hands, and the ſoles of the feet, were of the uſual appearance, but ſeemed to me to be uncommonly red. The ſkin of the remaining parts of the body was covered with corneous excreſcences, or pegs of greater or leſs ſize, and of a more or leſs horny nature. The longeſt, ſtrongeſt, and hardeſt, were on the fore arm and thighs; the fineſt were on ſome parts of the lower belly. They were in general ſmaller on the younger brother, and in many places, ſuch as the breaſt, ſoft. The largeſt excreſcences were from four to five lines in length, and of an irregular priſmatic form, with blunt edges, almoſt as if preſſed flat. The thickeſt were about three lines in diameter; at the extremities in general ſplit, and many of them diverging like a fork. On the other hand, I ſcarcely obſerved one of them of that cylindric form aſcribed to them by Baker, who beſide ſuppoſed them to be hollow; at leaſt ſuch was the opinion of Haller, who conſidered this as a confirmation of Boerhaave's opinion in regard to the conſtruction of the epidermis, as he ſays, 'In hoc puero tota ſuperficies corporis abiit in congeriem tubulorum exſtantium, calloſorum, ſubinde renaſcentium, quod certe exemplum quaſi de induſtria ad conformandam præceptoris ſententiam factum eſt.'

Boerhaave ſays expreſsly of the epidermis, 'Conſtat vaſorum exhalantium et inhalantium innumerabilium extremis annulis, inter ſe connatis.'

Where the excreſcences were longeſt and thickeſt, they appeared to me to be like thoſe which I have ſeen in the elephant under the forehead and above the trunk.

The colour of them in general appeared to be a cheſnut or coffee brown. This however was the caſe at the ſurface, for in other parts the larger ones were rather yellowiſh gray.

The hair of the ſkin appeared ſometimes as if grown into the horny ſubſtance of theſe excreſcences.

Both the brothers, as well as the father and grandfather, had had the ſmallpox, in the laſt ſtage of which they loſt the greater part of their excreſcences; but they were ſoon gradually reproduced. In general they drop off ſingly from time to time, eſpecially in winter; but new ones gradually grow up. When they are in any manner torn off, the ſkin which lies under them readily begins to bleed.

The ſkin on the top of the head before, and eſpecially in the oldeſt, forms a kind of broad calloſity, which has ſome reſemblance to the *toſis* of the camel.

The perſpiration of theſe two brothers exhibits nothing uncommon, no perceptible ſmell, &c. and during great heats or violent exerciſe they ſweat like other men.

I am acquainted with only two caſes which have a real analogy to that of the porcupine men from Suffolk. The one is the boy from Biſeglia, of whom Stalp van der Wiel has given a figure and ſome account, in his Obſervations: the other is a female child, three years of age, at Vienna, whoſe hiſtory and an account of the cure have been publiſhed by J. A. von Brambillas. In both the face was free from theſe excreſcences, but the palms of the hands and the ſoles of the feet were the moſt covered with them. An obſervation made in regard to the boy correſponds exactly with a circumſtance related of the porcupine man: 'Delapſis veteribus, novæ illico ſuccedebant ſquamæ, quibus avulſis mox effluebat ſanguis:' and the caſe is the ſame with what Brambilla ſays of the girl: 'ſhe was born with a ſmooth and ſomewhat yellow ſkin, but in ſix weeks it became brown, and in the courſe of a year black and briſtly.' The laſt mentioned child was freed from its briſtly warts by the continued uſe of bathing and mercurials; and we are told by Baker that the firſt porcupine man twice employed ſalivation to cleanſe his ſkin; that by theſe means the excreſcences dropped off, and that the ſkin continued for ſome time as white and ſmooth as that of other people; but that ſoon after the cure it became covered with theſe horny excreſcences as before.

Other inſtances of ſingular deformities in the ſkin are mentioned by Fabricius, Hildanus, Fourcroy, &c. but theſe are ſo different from that here alluded to, that they cannot be placed in the ſame claſs.

AN ACCOUNT OF JERUSLEM AND ITS VICINITY.

Concluded from Vol. CXII, *Page* 433.

WE were next conducted to all the intereſting places which reſpected our Saviour previouſly to his death; ſuch as the ſpot where he was confined before his trial and condemnation; that where he was ſcourged, and the crown of thorns placed on his head; that where he was nailed to the croſs, &c. We ſaw the fiſſure in the rock which was rent by the earthquake at the time he gave up the ghoſt, together with the place where the ſoldiers caſt lots for his garments, and the ſpot where his body was embalmed.

The whole of this very extenſive building, in which the Greeks, Latins, Armenians, and Copts, have each reſpectively a chapel, ſtands on Mount Calvary. We viſited each of theſe chapels. Near to that which was built by St. Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the great, in commemoration of the finding of the croſs on which our Saviour was crucified, we ſaw the cavern which was formerly the grand reſervoir of water that contained the croſs. In the middle of the Greek chapel ſtands a marble baſin fixed on the ground, which the Greek prieſts told us was not only placed in the centre of the pile of buildings, but in the centre of the univerſe: this beautiful chapel is built of yellow and white marble, and ſeveral of the columns are of verd antique. We next proceeded to the chapel where Mary viſited Jeſus, the pavement of which is of beautiful marble, inlaid and ornamented with much taſte. In the courſe of our inquiries, we ſaw the tomb of Baldwin, governor of Jeruſalem, who was killed during the cruſades.

The beauty and grandeur of theſe buildings do great credit to the age in which they were executed. Over the gate which led us to the elegant ſtructure erected by the order of St. Helena, in which the holy ſepulchre and the memorable ſpots I have noticed above are encloſed, we ſaw the veſtiges of ſeveral pieces of fine ſculpture, together with a conſiderable number of marble and granite columns of the Corinthian order, and other architectural decorations.

The Greek and Armenian prieſts entertained us with coffee and ſherbet in their reſpective chapels. They told us, that after the French had landed in Egypt, the Turks had, on a plea of ſuſpicion that the monks in general were not entire ſtrangers to the plans and intentions of the enemy, ſearched their monaſteries for arms, papers, and other concealed effects, and had obliged them to ſeek refuge in the building over the holy ſepulchre; they had there threatened to bring cannon againſt them, and put them to death, in caſe they ſhould refuſe to open the door of the building, and ſurrender themſelves. In this alarming criſis they were providentially ſaved by a Turkiſh ſanton, or fanatic, who took his ſtation on an elevated part of the city, and there harangued the Muſſelmen in behalf of the miniſters of the Chriſtian goſpel, reminding them that, having ſearched their monaſteries, they had neither found arms nor any other object which could lead to ſuſpicion, and recommending them to deſiſt, and permit the unfortunate prieſts to return to their convents: the effect of this exhortation was, that the multitude laid aſide their ſanguinary purſuit, and the monks were permitted to return quietly to their homes. They were not ungrateful for their deliverance, but collected a conſiderable ſum of money for the ſanton, which he, with great delicacy, refuſed.

On our return we dined at the convent with the holy fathers, and proceeded afterward to the general's lodging, where the viſit of the muſti, who came thither to pay his reſpects, was ſhortly after announced. This perſonage, who ſeemed to carry terror and diſmay in his countenance, told us, that it was impoſſible Jeruſalem ſhould ever be taken, as there were ſeventy thouſand prophets on the other ſide of the Dead Sea ready to come forward for its protection and defence. He alſo declared to us, that it was recorded in the ſacred writings that the Engliſh and Turks had been friends for more than a thouſand years. He was not only ſupreme of the church, but held the office of cadi, or judge.

On his departure we returned the viſits of the Greek and Armenian clergy. The Armenian church, a fine and elegant ſtructure, was ornamented, by ſeveral good ſcriptural paintings. The fathers pointed out to us the ſpot where the head of St. James was depoſited, after he had been decapitated at Caiſſa.

We roſe at five in the morning of

the 18th, and went to the chapel, where maſs was performing. We breakfaſted ſhortly after, and at ſeven o'clock left Jeruſalem, on our way to Bethlem, accompanied by the ſuperior and ſeveral of the monks belonging to the Latin convent, in which we had taken up our reſidence. On our quitting the city we paſſed Mount Sion, on which the walls of the city are partly built, and which is ſeparated by a valley from the hill where Judas Iſcariot ſold Jeſus for thirty pieces of money: the road winds over a part of this hill. After an hour's journey we reached a convent built by St. Helena, from whence we had a view of Bethlem, the road leading to which is extremely rocky, and of a very dreary appearance. On approaching, the Dead Sea was in our view. Bethlem ſtands on a lofty mountain, the ſoil of which abounds in chalk and marl. The inhabitants came out to welcome us on the road; and this was done by the women by a moſt hideous ſhrieking noiſe, accompanied by geſtures and diſtortions which it would be difficult to deſcribe. On our paſſage through the ſtreets the houſes were thronged with people.

As we approached the convent, in which we were received with great hoſpitality, we paſſed beneath the ruins of an ancient gateway, and afterward entered a lofty building, erected by St. Helena, anciently ſtyled the temple, but now the convent, of St. Catherine. It is ornamented with at leaſt fifty lofty and beautiful columns of marble, of the Corinthian order, and has on its walls the remains of ſeveral fine paintings, in freſco, of ſcriptural ſubjects, repreſenting the apoſtles, patriarchs, &c. The beauty and ſymmetry of the temple have been in ſome meaſure deſtroyed by a portion of it, which they have converted into a chapel, having been divided off by the Greeks, who received permiſſion from the Turks to do ſo, on their conſenting to pay an annual contribution.

After having partaken of an excellent breakfaſt, provided by the ſuperior of the convent, we went to ſee the three ſurpriſing baſins built by Solomon, near to which he is ſaid to have ſpent much of his time.

The pools, or baſins, of Solomon are three in number, and ſituate in a ſloping hollow of the mountain, one above another; ſo that the waters of the uppermoſt deſcend into the ſecond, and thoſe of the ſecond into the third: their figure is quadrangular; the breadth is nearly the ſame in all, amounting to between eighty and ninety paces; in their length they differ, the firſt being about one hundred and ſixty paces long, the ſecond two hundred, and the third two hundred and twenty; the depth of each is conſiderable. They are lined with ſtone, plaiſtered, and in a tolerable ſtate of repair; they contained, however, but little water when I viſited them.

The monks by whom we were accompanied conſidered theſe pools, or baſins, as one of the greateſt antiquities in the country.

They are diſtant two hours journey from Bethlem; and the road which leads to them, conſiſting entirely of rocks, is almoſt impracticable. Theſe baſins ſupplied the inhabitants of Bethlem and Jeruſalem with water, by means of aqueducts, which appeared, however, at the time of our viſit, to be out of repair. In the vicinity of the pools we noticed a Turkiſh fort; and, not far from it, the ſource, or ſpring, by which the baſins are ſupplied with water, as well as by the rains which occaſionally fall upon the neighbouring mountains during the winter ſeaſon.

In returning, we paſſed through a valley, in which was a garden, entitled the garden of Solomon: its irrigation having been favoured by the water which at times iſſues from the rocks above into the valley, the vegetables it contained had a very promiſing appearance. We ſaw in the valley the ruin alſo of a building, which, we were told, had been inhabited by Solomon's concubines.

On approaching Bethlem the general made a ſketch of the town: and we found, on our arrival, a ſumptuous dinner prepared for us at the convent. After this repaſt we viſited the birth-place of our Saviour, a deep cavern hewn out of the ſolid rock, and lighted up by a conſiderable number of lamps, in which the manger was, as well as every other intereſting particular, pointed out to us. The manger was, for the ſame reaſon as the ſepulchre, caſed over with marble, to prevent the pilgrims from mutilating it, and carrying off with them fragments of ſuch precious relics. We were afterward conducted to a variety of memorable ſpots, and, among them, to the deep and immenſely large ciſtern into which the bodies of the infants murdered by command of Herod were thrown. Near to this ciſtern the tomb of St. Jerome was ſituate.

The convent of St. Catherine, in which at one time twenty monks reſided, but the number of whom was now reduced to eight, and the Greek and Armenian convents, being all of them within the ſame walls and encloſure, ſo as to conſtitute one large and entire building only, all the ever memorable places within Bethlem, which the ſacred writings have recorded, are in this way built over and preſerved.

The inhabitants of Bethlem conſiſt, for the greater part, of Greeks, Armenians, and Arabs, converted to Chriſtianity: among its population but few Turks are to be found. The dreſs of the men, like that of the neighbouring peaſants, is extremely ſimple, and conſiſts of a long white chemiſe, or frock, with a girdle faſtened round the waiſt: very few of the poorer ſort, whether males or females, wear ſhoes. The women are dreſſed in a blue chemiſe, with a cotton belt, or girdle, and cover the head with a long white veil, which flows looſely down the back: their complexion is very dark, approaching almoſt to black: they are very laborious, and ſubmit to every deſcription of drudgery: they are betrothed as ſoon as they come into the world, and marry at the early age of twelve years.

Bethlem, ſtanding on an eminence and on a chalky ſoil, is juſtly conſidered by the inhabitants as poſſeſſing a very ſalubrious air; in proof of which I obſerved but few among them who had a ſickly appearance: there were indeed ſome caſes of opthalmia, but very rare. The ſides of the mountain on which this town is ſituate were, as well as the ſummit, interſperſed with fine vineyards, banked in with ſtones, which muſt have coſt a prodigious labour to the cultivators: the grapes they yielded were remarkably large, and finely flavoured. In addition to theſe we ſaw figs, pomegranates, and an abundance of olives, on which fruits the inhabitants, in a great meaſure, ſubſiſt. In the vallies ſome corn is produced, and the bread made from it is of an excellent quality. The dews, which fall in great abundance, are highly favourable to the vegetation in general.

As we had to return, in the afternoon, the viſits of the Greek and Armenian patriarchs, it was ſomewhat late before we quitted Bethlem, inſomuch that we did not reach our convent at Jeruſalem until ſeven in the evening. I brought away with me from the former of theſe places ſeveral chaplets, or ſtrings of beads, made from a fruit brought from Mecca, dyed of a red colour, and croſſes, and other trinkets, made from a pearl-oyſter, which the inhabitants procure from the Red Sea, and which they manufacture into theſe curious articles with great addreſs.

On the 19th, at eleven in the morning, we left the convent at Jeruſalem, on our way to the Mount of Olives, ſituate at about a mile's diſtance from the walls of the city. Our attention was then directed to the ſepulchres of the kings, which the monks conſider as the third wonder in that part of the world. To inſpect

them, we entered at the eaſt ſide, through an opening cut out of the ſolid rock, which brought us into a ſpacious court of about forty paces ſquare, cut down into the rock, with which it is encompaſſed inſtead of walls. On the ſouth ſide of this court there is a portico, nine paces long and about four broad, in like manner hewn out of the natural rock: it has a kind of architrave running along its front, and although time has certainly deprived it of ſome of its beauties, yet it ſtill exhibits the remains of excellent ſculpture of flowers, fruits, &c. On the left hand, within this portico, we entered a ſmall aperture upon our knees and hands: the paſſage was become difficult on account of the accumulation of rubbiſh collected at its mouth.

We reached at the commencement a large ſquare chamber, cut with great neatneſs and exactneſs out of the ſolid rock. From this chamber we entered a ſecond, which led to ſeveral more, five or ſix in all, one within the other, nearly of the ſame deſcription as the firſt, except that in the interior chambers there were niches, or ſepulchres for the reception of the dead. Each of theſe caverns, or chambers, had niches for four, ſix, or eight, bodies. The mutilated portions of the ſarcophagi, ornamented with fine ſculpture, lay ſcattered upon the ground, as well as the fragments of the ſtone doors by which theſe chambers had been anciently cloſed.

The lid of one of the ſarcophagi, ſeven feet in length, having on it grapes, leaves, acorns, and various other devices, very beautifully ſculptured, was in an entire ſtate.

A door of one of the chambers was ſtill hanging. It conſiſted of a maſs of ſolid ſtone, reſembling the rock itſelf, of about ſix inches in thickneſs, but in ſize leſs than an ordinary door: it turned upon two hinges, contrived in the manner of axles. Theſe hinges were of the ſame entire piece of ſtone with the door, and were received into two holes of the immoveable rock, one at the top, the other at the bottom.

In ſome of theſe chambers the dead bodies were laid upon benches of ſtone; others had ſepulchres cut in the form of ovens. In the different chambers which I entered I imagine from forty to fifty bodies might have been depoſited. Whether the kings of Iſrael or of Judah, or any other kings, were the conſtructors of them, they have certainly been contrived with infinite ingenuity, and completed with immenſe labour.

Having withdrawn from theſe intereſting mauſolei, or caverns, we proceeded to the ſepulchres of the virgin Mary, of her mother, and of Joſeph, all of them ſituate in the valley of Jehoſhaphat, and over which was erected a large ſtone building, reconſtructed by the Armenians about forty years before. It was in the vicinity of this ſpot that St. Stephen was ſtoned. To reach the ſepulchres, which were in the interior part of a cavern, dug from the ſolid rock, we had to deſcend a flight of forty-eight ſteps. The virgin's ſepulchre was lighted by lamps, which were conſtantly kept burning at the joint expence of the Greeks, Armenians, and Copts. I brought away with me ſeveral ſmall pieces of rock, cut in ſquares, which the inhabitants take care to provide for the gratification of the curious traveller. Contiguous to the building erected over the ſepulchres we entered a cave, in which our Saviour is ſaid to have ſweated blood. The monks by whom we were accompanied pointed out to us ſeveral large, and apparently ancient, olive-trees, which, they aſſured us, were in exiſtence in the time of our Saviour, and which ſtood in front of the building. We did not preſume to queſtion their erudition on this point of natural hiſtory; but could not help admiring the attention they beſtowed on them, in encompaſſing their roots by ſtones, and filling up the cavities of their decayed trunks with the ſame materials, for their better preſervation.

On our quitting this ſpot we went to the Mount of Olives, a very ſteep hill, on the eaſt ſide of Jeruſalem, the valley of Jehoſhaphat lying between the mount and city. On our reaching its ſummit we were conducted to a ſmall circular building, in which the reverend fathers pointed out to us the impreſſion of our Saviour's foot in a ſtone, when he aſcended into heaven. The Chriſtian inhabitants, when they viſit the Mount of Olives, do not content themſelves with ſaluting this cavity in the ſtone, but alſo rub on it the fragments of marble taken from the rock beneath, at the ſepulchre of the bleſſed virgin. The ſmall building erected over the place of aſcenſion is contiguous to a Turkiſh moſque, and is in the poſſeſſion of the Turks, who derive a profit from ſhowing its contents; and who alſo ſubject the Chriſtians to an annual contribution for a permiſſion to officiate within it, according to their ritual, on aſcenſion day. At the diſtance of about a hundred yards from the moſque is the ſpot where the angel appeared to Jeſus, warning him to aſcend, as his place was not on earth, but above; and where the apoſtles were aſſembled at the moment of his aſcenſion. From the moſque itſelf we had a fine and commanding view of Jeruſalem, Mount Sion, and the Dead Sea.

In deſcending the mountain, and in paſſing afterward through the valley of Jehoſhaphat, we paſſed to the right of the place where the body of the prophet Iſaiah was ſevered into two parts. In aſcending Mount Sion we ſaw, on the acclivity of an oppoſite mountain, a building erected on the ſpot where Judas Iſcariot betrayed Jeſus for thirty pieces of ſilver. On reaching the ſummit of the mount, a church and a convent, belonging to the Armenians, were pointed out to us, ſituate at a ſmall diſtance from the entrance-gate leading to the back part of the city: it was there, the monks informed us, that the cock crew when Peter denied Chriſt. Without the city walls, and on Mount Sion, there is a Turkiſh moſque ſtanding on the ground where king David was buried, and where our Saviour inſtituted the Lord's ſupper.

We returned to Jeruſalem, and, having partaken of a good dinner at the convent, paid an evening's viſit to the Mufti, who received us with much hoſpitality and politeneſs, and who expreſſed his wiſh that we would ſpend another day in the holy city, in order that he might entertain us in a ſuitable manner; we had, however, made our arrangements to ſet out on the following morning, on our return to Jaffa.

Having accordingly made an early breakfaſt at the convent, we left Jeruſalem at eight in the morning of the 20th. Our plan was, to halt at St. Jerome in the evening; to proceed to Ramla on the following day; and to reach Jaffa on the third. On our way to the village of St. John, diſtant three hours journey from Jeruſalem, a fine building, ſtyled the convent of St. Helena, was pointed out to us, as having been built by that empreſs on the ſpot whence the timber was taken for our Saviour's croſs. In the village itſelf, the birth-place of St. John the Baptiſt, there is alſo a convent. We arrived there at eleven o'clock, and, having entered the church, were directed to the ſpot where St. John was born, and which is conſtantly lighted up by lamps. The church is very neatly decorated, and is ornamented by ſeveral good pictures.

The inhabitants of St. John are a mixture of Turks and Arabs, the former of whom are by far the moſt numerous. They were, at the time of our viſit, as well as two other neighbouring villages, in a hoſtile ſtate to Mahomed Pacha, who not content with having levied the cuſtomary annual avanias, or tributes, had endeavoured to exact heavy contributions, which they had neither the will nor the capacity to pay. They had accordingly aſſembled, and had ſworn, laying their ſwords acroſs, which with them adds great ſolemnity to the pro-

teſtation, that they would prefer death to a ſubmiſſion to any demand which ſhould exceed the cuſtomary amount of their contributions. In the vicinity of this village there are ſeveral fine vineyards, and other ſpots in excellent cultivation.

After having taken the neceſſary refreſhments we quitted St. John at two in the afternoon, on our way to St. Jerome; on our approaching which place we were met by the Arab ſheick, and a conſiderable number of his people, who had come out to welcome us and pay their reſpects. On our arrival, at half paſt four o'clock, we were conducted to a houſe which had been prepared for our reception; and, having brought with us cold proviſions, we ſoon found ourſelves at our eaſe.

Shortly after we had reached the village, the inhabitants, who were equally refractory with thoſe of St. John, were thrown into great confuſion and alarm by the rumour that the troops of Mahomed Pacha were approaching: inſtantly both men and women fled to an adjoining poſt, ſituate on a lofty mountain, very difficult of acceſs, and equally hazardous to an enemy who ſhould meditate an attack. They there waited further intelligence reſpecting the advances of the redoubted pacha.

On our riſing at four in the morning of the 21ſt, there was a very conſiderable fall of dew, which, in this country, where the rains occur ſo ſeldom, is in a manner indiſpenſable to the vegetation. We were told at Jeruſalem that rain had not fallen there during nine months.

The vineyards about St. Jerome, cultivated in terraces, or, in other words, banked in with ſtones to prevent the eſcape of the ſoil and moiſture, had a very promiſing appearance. We left that place about ſeven o'clock, to proceed to Ramla, and took a route over the mountains, infinitely more agreeable and commodious to the traveller than that by which we had paſſed on our way to Jeruſalem. We arrived about eleven o'clock at the village of Caiſſa, where we had breakfaſted when we firſt proceeded on our journey, the day after our departure from Jaffa; and, having halted to take refreſhments, purſued our way to Ramla, which we reached at two in the afternoon, fixing our reſidence, as before, at the Latin convent.

Ramla, the ancient Arimathea of the ſacred writings, is well known as the reſidence of Joſeph, the rich man and diſciple, who went to Pontius Pilate to beg the body of Jeſus, which having obtained, he, in concert with Nicodemus, took it down, and wrapped in linen clothes, with ſpices, after the manner of the Jews, depoſiting it in a ſepulchre, hewn out of the rock, which had been prepared for himſelf. The view of the town, from the ſide at which we entered on this latter occaſion, was extremely picturesque and beautiful. It is ſituate on the confine of a rich and extenſive plain, the luxuriant ſoil of which is capable of produing whatever is eſſential to the ſubſiſtence of man. We ſaw ſeveral plantations of the dourra, or Indian corn, together with vineyards, gardens containing fruits and vegetables, and fields of cotton. The numerous olive-trees without the town, and the date-trees interſperſed between the buildings, furniſhed a moſt agreeable picture.

The pavement of the ſtreets of Ramla is intermixed with portions of marble; and the houſes being partly built of that material, which is here of a yellowiſh caſt, and partly of ſtone, with the addition of domes and terraces, have a very neat and agreeable appearance, when viewed from an elevated ſituation.

We were told by the reverend fathers belonging to our convent that the mountain which is contiguous to the Dead Sea exudes a bituminous matter, with which the ſea itſelf is occaſionally overſpread. They produced a ſpecimen of this ſubſtance, which had the appearance of common

pitch. I do not wiſh to accuſe them of dealing in the marvellous, but they ſurpriſed us not a little when, in ſpeaking of the noxious quality of the air in the vicinity of the Dead Sea, they aſſerted, that notwithſtanding the fruits and vegetables which grew there were very fine in appearance, they were deſtitute of all flavour; and that the oranges, in particular, inſtead of containing a pleaſant and refreſhing juice, were filled with a cineritious matter. The ſuperior aſſured us, that he had ſent ſeveral of theſe oranges to Europe, as a curioſity.

Several fine refreſhing ſhowers having fallen during the night, we had a very cool and agreeable ride from Ramla, which we left at eight in the morning of the 22d, and reached the camp at Jaffa, about eleven o'clock.

On our return from Jeruſalem we fell in with the Greek prieſts whom I have already mentioned as having been on their way to Ramla, to obey a requiſition of Mahomet Pacha, with whom, we were now told, they had purchaſed their peace, by conſenting to pay a fine of five hundred purſes, each containing the ſame number of piaſtres. This reconciliation having been effected, they were joyfully returning to the holy city.

Our excurſion thither was attended by a ſingular circumſtance, namely, that our party, comprehending the eſcort and attendants, was made up of eight different nations, Engliſh, Spaniards, Italians, Greeks, Armenians, Turks, Copts, and Arabs.

DECRIPTION OF GRAND CAIRO.

[From the SAME.]

GRAND Cairo, the capital of Egypt, is by the Arabs called Meſr, or Meſſer, and has alſo been denominated, in the language of the country, Kahira. It is ſituate beneath Mount Mokattam, to the foot of which it reaches, on the eaſtern bank of the Nile, from which it is nearly a mile diſtant, and is ſurrounded by a wall, the circumference of which may be computed at about three leagues.

The caſtle, or citadel, ſtands on the moſt elevated part of the town, under Mount Mokattam, which, in the Arabic tongue, is called Gibbel Girgis. It is conjectured by ſome to have been built by Salah Edden, a ſultan of Egypt, ſeventeen centuries ago; while others carry back its antiquity to a ſtill more remote period, to the flouriſhing period of ancient Greece, and conjecture it to have conſtituted a part of the Egyptian Babylon. It comprehends a very large ſpace of ground, and contains many ruinous buildings, a part of which formerly boaſted a conſiderable ſhare of ſplendour, having been inhabited by the ſultans of Egypt. Prior to the invaſion of Egypt by the French, the pacha of Cairo reſided in a palace, now in a very ruinous condition, within the citadel; and, independently of the quarter occupied by him, his guards, ſuite, corps of Janiſſaries, and Aſſafs, had diſtinct portions of the buildings aſſigned to them.

However formidable this citadel may be to the inhabitants of Cairo, its poſition would be by no means advantageous in the caſe of a regular ſiege, ſince it is ſo completely commanded by Mount Mokattam, that an experienced enemy from without would have every advantage over the beſieged inhabitants.

The walls of the citadel, which have been ſuffered in a great meaſure to fall into decay, are in general lofty, and appear to have been well built: in many parts they were repaired, fortified, and new modelled, by the French, whoſe principal aim ſeems to have been a perfect command of the town, which, in its preſent ſtate, it poſſeſſes in a ſufficient degree to over-

awe the inhabitants in all caſes of popular tumult and commotion.

For the further defence of Cairo, to which they deſervedly attached a very particular importance, the French conſtructed ſeveral ſmall forts and block-houſes on the different commanding mounds of rubbiſh by which that city is every where ſurrounded. They alſo formed lines which extended from Grand Cairo to the Nile, incloſing Boulac on the north ſide; and, to the ſouthward, converted the aqueduct into a wall of defence, reaching from the river ſide to the walls of Cairo.

On the iſlands of Roudah and Lazaretta ſeveral ſmall works were thrown up; and on the approach of the Britiſh army ſeveral veſſels were ſunk in ſuch a manner as to form a boom, extending acroſs the Nile, from the iſland of Lazaretta to the village of Embaba. In addition to theſe defences, the houſe of Ibrahim Bey, ſituate on the eaſtern bank of the Nile, was converted into a ſmall fort, and the village of Giza ſurrounded by a wall, with ſeveral ſketches thrown out in earth-works, and paliſadoed.

Within the citadel of Cairo there is a mint, in which gold and ſilver monies, having on them the ſtamp of the city, are coined. In Egypt, as well as in Turkey, the latter of theſe coins are ſo much debaſed that the proportion of ſilver contained in them does not exceed twenty-five per cent.

The ſtreets of Cairo are extremely narrow, and winding in their direction; being at the ſame time unpaved, the ſtranger who paſſes through them labours under many difficulties, and, in conſequence of their great intricacy, is frequently obliged to have recourſe to a guide: their very contracted breadth has, however, this convenience, that it affords to the inhabitants an almoſt continual ſhade, which, in a climate like that of Egypt, where the ſun's rays ſhed ſo intenſe and ſcorching a heat, cannot be otherwiſe than highly acceptable; they are rendered ſtill more cool and agreeable by being frequently, in the courſe of the day, ſprinkled with water; and in this way the duſt, which when dry, is converted into ſo fine and impalpable a powder as to be raiſed into the air by the ſmalleſt puff of wind, is laid, and arreſted in its progreſs. One of the greateſt annoyances to which perſons on foot can be ſubjected is thus in a great meaſure removed.

The houſes of Cairo are lofty, and provided with flat roofs, or terraces, the walls of the lower ſtory being conſtructed of a whitiſh ſtone, brought from the neighbouring mountain: the upper ſtories are built of wood, with the windows projecting into the ſtreet, and latticed. The projection is frequently carried to ſuch an exceſs, that the oppoſite windows of the houſes on each ſide of the ſtreet nearly touch each other.

Within, the apartments of the principal houſes are large and commodious, and have a capacious opening facing the north, which ſerves as a ventilator, and allows a conſtant current of air to paſs through the dwelling. In the houſes inhabited by the beys, and by the more opulent of the merchants, there are handſome fountains, which are conſtantly playing: this is conſidered as one of the greateſt luxuries that can be enjoyed within doors. The floors are of ſtone, and are uſually decorated with moſaic work, executed with much taſte and neatneſs. The furniture is much the ſame as that employed in Turkey, and conſiſts principally of ſofas and carpets.

The great and the wealthy uſually repoſe on a ſofa, in the calm enjoyment of all the pomp and luxury of the eaſt, ſmoking until ſun-ſet, and taking between meals their coffee, ſherbet, &c. while the numerous claſs of the indigent inhabitants toil unceaſingly, without a ſhelter from the ſcorching rays of the ſun, and ſtill appear cheerful and contented with a ſcanty meal. This deſcription of people, indeed, live extremely hard, have ſcarcely a ſufficiency of clothing

to hide their nakedneſs, and ſleep and herd with their animals, in filth and wretchedneſs.

The palaces of the beys are very capacious, and are ſurrounded by high walls, with a wide entrance, but without windows, exteriorly at leaſt, on the ground floor. Many of them were in a ruinous ſtate at the time of our arrival at Cairo, having been partly demoliſhed by the French, together with nearly the whole of one of the ſides of a large ſquare, called Ezbekier.

The moſques occupy at Cairo large ſpaces of ground, and are very numerous: their minarets have a fine appearance from a diſtance, but the moſques themſelves are much inferior to thoſe of Conſtantinople.

The length of the city, from north to ſouth, is about a league and a half, and its breadth nearly a league. It is provided with ſeveral gates, or entrances, the principal one of which, leading in a northern direction toward Syria, is called Babel Naſſer. On entering the city by this gate, the traveller finds himſelf in a long and narrow ſtreet, which as it is one of thoſe more particularly appropriated to commerce, is very populous, and conſtantly thronged with paſſengers: it contains many bazars, or ſhops, fitted up for the different trades and profeſſions, and which are not ill ſupplied with the commodities and manufactures of the country, as well as with thoſe imported from Europe. In this ſtreet, and in ſeveral others which are reſpectably inhabited, a kind of wooden chandeliers are ſuſpended in the centre, at a convenient height, to be employed in the illuminations which take place on the celebration of the different feſtivals.

Each of the coffee-houſes of Cairo is frequented by a reciter of extemporaneous verſes, of perhaps by ſeveral. By contributing to the amuſement of the company, theſe improviſitori collect ſmall ſums to relieve their neceſſities, which, as their ſole dependence is placed on the ſkill they have acquired in the recital of their impromptus, are of the moſt urgent kind. Accordingly, they are to be met with, not only in the coffee-houſes, but on the beſt frequented roads, in the moſt impoveriſhed and abject condition, frequently with a cap of ruſhes on the head, as a diſtinctive mark of their vocation. They there lay the paſſengers under contribution, by the recital of verſes in their praiſe, which, notwithſtanding thoſe whom they accoſt are utterly unknown to them, are certain to be filled with the moſt fulſome adulation.

It was impoſſible for me to form an accurate idea of the population of Cairo, which I was, however, led to think very conſiderable. This opinion was probably in ſome meaſure influenced by the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, which occaſions them to be almoſt conſtantly crowded with paſſengers. It is proper to ſtate, however, that there are in that city very large areas, or ſpaces of ground, unoccupied, independently of the very extenſive openings which ſurround the moſques, the houſes of the beys, and the public buildings. Any inference I could draw on this head from the mortality which took place during my ſtay there would be very uncertain.

I could not learn that there are any wells of freſh water at Cairo, with the exception of one in the citadel which boaſts a conſiderable degree of antiquity, and is very curious in its conſtruction: its origin is carried back to the reign of the caliph Salah-ed-din, whoſe name properly ſignifies Joſeph; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that it has received from this circumſtance the denomination of Joſeph's well, rather than that it was named, as ſome have ſuppoſed, after the patriarch Joſeph, the reputed father of our Saviour. Within the citadel there is a very extenſive building, which, as it is conjectured to have been formerly the reſidence of the caliph Joſeph, or Salah-ed-din, is called Joſeph's palace, and contains ſeveral veſtiges of its ancient ſplendour: one apartment,

in particular, is ornamented with beautiful moſaic work, but this room is at preſent converted into a cloth manufactory: it leads into another apartment, the cieling of which was formerly embelliſhed with paintings in freſco. What renders the remote antiquity of this palace, which has been without doubt the reſidence of the caliphs of Egypt, unqueſtionable, is, that the names of the ancient monarchs of Egypt are engraven on its walls, in characters which leave no uncertainty as to the time of their being wrought.

To return to Joſeph's well. It is in depth no leſs than two hundred and eighty Engliſh feet, and in circumference forty, with a winding gallery, by which the men and cattle employed to procure the water aſcend and deſcend at pleaſure. Both the well and the gallery leading to it are hewn out of the ſolid rock, an undertaking which could not have been accompliſhed without a conſiderable ſhare of labour and difficulty, notwithſtanding the ſubſtance of the rock conſiſts in that part of a calcareous ſtone, which is not of the hardeſt texture. The water, which is brackiſh, is drawn up by the means of large wheels, to which earthen vaſes are faſtened, and which are worked by oxen and buffaloes. The vaſes empty themſelves into a trough, where the water is collected for the various purpoſes for which it is deſtined.

The inhabitants of Cairo are ſupplied with water from the Nile, and in this way employment is found for a conſiderable number of men, who bring it into the city in leathern ſkins made water tight, and thrown acroſs the back of camels and aſſes. The women and children of the poorer claſſes, who cannot afford to purchaſe the water thus procured, although it is ſold at a very cheap rate, repair to the river to ſeek their ſupply, which they carry on the head, in large earthen pitchers, with great eaſe and dexterity, and, in ſome inſtances, with a conſiderable portion of grace.

The inhabitants of Grand Cairo, like thoſe of the other cities and towns of Egypt, are a mixture of Arabs, Copts, or ancient Egyptians, Greeks, Armenians, Turks, and Mamelukes. The Arabs are conſidered as by far the moſt numerous claſs, which is indeed the caſe in every part of Egypt. The number of the Chriſtian reſidents is very inconſiderable. Arabic, which is the language of the country, is almoſt excluſively ſpoken at Cairo, the Copts, the aborigines of Egypt, having through diſuſe almoſt entirely loſt their own language. It is true that their prieſts, in the performance of the maſs and other religious ceremonies, employ Coptic books, but I was aſſured by ſeveral of the inhabitants of Cairo, on whoſe teſtimony I could rely, that they are not in general acquainted with the language.

The Arab inhabitants of Cairo are a very active race, well proportioned, and of a ſlender make. In all the laborious occupations the females of the inferior claſs take an active part, and have a dark, ſallow complexion, with features calculated to excite diſguſt. They marry when very young, and have a numerous offſpring, but their wretched condition of life expoſes their children to a great mortality: the appearance of the latter, and indeed of the newly born infants, is truly diſtreſſing: the countenance is ſallow, flaccid, and of a cadaverous hue, and the eyes affected by opthalmia, to which diſeaſe they are ſubject from their earlieſt infancy; they are alſo much expoſed to meſenteric enlargements. The children even of the ſuperior claſſes of Europeans, ſuch as merchants, ſettled at Cairo, have a pallid and ſickly appearance, and are reared with great difficulty. In general, the young are ſwept off in great numbers by the ſmallpox. The frequency indeed of diſeaſe, and the great mortality which commonly prevails among the lower claſſes of the inhabitants, are unqueſtionably to be aſcribed to the very filthy ſtate in which they live, and to the want of a proper nouriſhment, which latter cauſe

affects more particularly the tender condition of the infants.

The dreſs of the men belonging to the lower claſs of Arabs conſiſts of a blue cotton chemiſe, with a broad leathern belt faſtened round the loins, and a white or coloured ſhawl twiſted round the head in the form of a turban: they wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings. Their ſheicks have a large blue chequered, or plaid, handkerchief, which hangs looſely down from one of the ſhoulders, and wear ſlippers on the feet.

The dreſs of the women of the ſame claſs is equally ſimple, conſiſting alſo of a long blue chemiſe, without either ſlippers or ſtockings: a piece of black ſilk anſwers the purpoſe of a veil ſo effectually, that ſcarce any part of the face, the eyes excepted, can be ſeen. The eye-lids are blackened with a pigment made of the teſſelated ore of lead, which, in the country, is called alquifoux; and the chin is ſtained of a blue colour. The fingers are dyed of a red or deep orange colour with the leaves of the henna; and on the wriſts bracelets of coloured glaſs are worn, with large rings on the fingers. The ears are ornamented with rings, from which pieces of money are occaſionally ſuſpended.

THE FARMER'S DAUGHTER:

AN INTERESTING STORY.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

I AM one of thoſe old faſhioned beings, who perſiſt in the obſolete cuſtom of enjoying the refreſhing beauty of a fine ſummer's morn, and had quitted the apartments which I occupy in the Temple, when St. Dunſtan's clock ſtruck the hour of ſix. Buſineſs having detained me until very late the preceding evening, I was prevented from ſleeping with my family, who reſide at Newington-green, yet I determined to gratify my mind with the pleaſures of domeſtic felicity, before it was occupied by the buſineſs of the day. Upon paſſing through Lincoln's-inn, my attention was attracted by a young female, whoſe appearance at that hour excited ſurpriſe; her dreſs was perfectly neat, but ſhe moved with rapid motion, and frequently looked back with an eye of apprehenſion, as if ſhe was fearful of being purſued. In her form there was ſomething peculiarly elegant, and I conjectured ſhe was beautiful, though I was not near enough to diſcover whether my opinion was right: ſtill, however, ſhe had excited my curioſity by her manner, which was ſtrengthened by the hour ſhe had choſen for her flight, for the rapidity of her ſteps completely convinced me that ſhe felt a dread of being purſued.

Although I had promiſed myſelf much pleaſure from breakfaſting with my family, I determined to follow the object of my attention unobſerved, and though ſhe ſometimes pauſed a moment, as if not knowing which way to direct her footſteps, I followed her until ſhe came to Iſlington fields. Exhauſted, either by fatigue or exertion, ſhe ſat herſelf down under a hedge, and removing a large bonnet, which concealed her features from me, expoſed one of the moſt intereſting countenances I had ever beheld. Claſping her hands together with a fervency of emotion, and directing her eyes toward the throne of grace, ſhe burſt into a flood of tears, and ſeemed to be offering up an ejaculation, for having, unmoleſted, made her eſcape.

There is ſomething ſo ſacred in real ſorrow, that every man of feeling would avoid intruding upon the privacy which it ſeeks; yet the ſituation ſhe had choſen I knew to be unſafe, as the haymakers had merely retired to one corner of the field to breakfaſt, and upon their return I was perſuad-

ed they would inſult her with their jeſts. Bruſhing the leaves therefore of the hedge to prevent her from feeling alarmed at my appearance, I accoſted her in a voice, which muſt have convinced her I had obſerved her diſtreſs, informed her I was the father of a large family, and with all the earneſtneſs of ſincerity offered to be her friend.

'Oh, ſir!' ſaid ſhe, while tears teſtified her agitation, 'in mercy then lend me ſufficient to convey me to my friends; my father is a farmer of great reſpectability, and he will gratefully repay you with a thouſand thanks.' I inſtantly promiſed the boon ſhe had requeſted, but intreated her to accompany me to my wife; when, with an innocence indiſcribable, ſhe implored me not to be offended, but ſtrenuouſly refuſed accompanying me to my houſe. 'It may, perhaps, ſir, appear to be ungrateful,' ſaid the artleſs girl, addreſſing me in broken accents; 'yet if you knew how I had been deceived, you would not be offended, but never will I truſt to profeſſions again! Obſerving a female haymaker approach, whoſe countenance was prepoſſeſſing, I requeſted her to remain by the ſide of the young woman until I returned, promiſing to fetch a ſum that would be ſufficient to enable her immediately to return to her friends.

Curioſity, as well as compaſſion, had been excited by this young woman, and I concluded I might be able to ſerve her more eſſentially if I returned accompanied by my wife, whoſe ſweetneſs of manners I was perſuaded would induce the young creature to conſider her in the light of a friend. I met my Louiſa walking with the dear pledges of our affection, about half a mile from the ſpot where I had left the object of my concern; and, accompanied by them, I returned immediately to her, and without much difficulty perſuaded her to accept the accommodation which my wife, as well as myſelf, was ſo ready to afford. Breakfaſt was prepared upon our entering the cottage, but we could neither of us perſuade our gueſt to eat, and the moment the ſervants had withdrawn, ſhe requeſted permiſſion to relate the recent events of her life.

'I told you, ſir, (ſaid ſhe) that my father was a reſpectable farmer, when you firſt offered me that ſuccour which I was too much terrified to receive; for, deceived as I had been, by profeſſions of regard from my own ſex, you will not think it ſtrange that I ſhould feel apprehenſive of meeting with deception from yours. The farm which my father occupies is ſituate about three miles from Brighton, and the company frequently drive round his grounds.' It is about two years ſince, an elderly lady and her daughters were overturned within ſight of our houſe. My father, with that humanity which is natural to his diſpoſition, flew to the ſpot for the purpoſe of offering every aſſiſtance in his power, and my mother and ſelf followed, and intreated the ladies would take ſome refreſhment at our houſe. Not any of them were hurt, though all appeared exceedingly terrified, and my mother's offer was gratefully received, and as it was about our dining hour, they were eaſily perſuaded to become our gueſts for the remainder of the day.

Neither my father or mother were much pleaſed with the young ladies, as they thought their behaviour was too forward for girls of their age, but there was ſomething ſo inſinuating in the manners of their mother, that we all thought her the moſt charming woman we had ever ſeen. The next day, Mrs. Anderſon, which was the name of our new acquaintance, called, unaccompanied by her daughters, at our houſe, and in my preſence congratulated my mother upon having a child ſo ſenſible of the duty which ſhe owed the author of her birth. 'For my part,' ſaid this inſinuating woman, with well feigned ſorrow in her countenance, 'I am one of the moſt unfortunate mothers in the world; for poor dear general Anderſon, in an ill-

judged fit of parental fondneſs, left my daughters' fortunes in their own hands; and though I hope there is nothing materially wrong in their natural diſpoſitions, yet they torture my feelings by the want of filial reſpect.' At the cloſe of this ſpeech ſhe burſt into a flood of tears, and I was ſo much affected at beholding them that I could not reſtrain mine.

'Amiable ſenſibility!' ſaid ſhe, drawing me toward her, and preſſing me tenderly to her breaſt. 'Oh! how I envy your mother ſuch a treaſure, but religion teaches us that we ought to be contented with what we have!'

'It would be impoſſible for me to deſcribe half the praiſes ſhe beſtowed upon me and my poor dear parents. At length I uſed to implore her not to make me vain: in ſhort, ſir, from the time that the accident happened to her carriage, ſhe regularly viſited us every day. Though ſhe had frequently requeſted my parents to let me ſpend ſome time with her in London, ſhe never invited me to viſit her upon the Stein, which I could not help thinking rather extraordinary, particularly as ſhe regularly drank tea with us once or twice a week.

'As I was an only child, I had been ſent to a boarding ſchool at Lewes, and had often in vain requeſted my father to let me learn the piano forte, and upon Mrs. Anderſon hearing me ſing, ſhe offered to pay a maſter, and and at length obtained my father's conſent that I ſhould learn. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the attachment I felt toward her, and thought her daughters muſt be the moſt deſpicable monſters that breathed, and when the moment came that ſhe was to return to London, I felt as if going to be ſeparated from every thing I held dear. She wrote frequently to me from London, and her letters were dictated with that kind of affection, which the moſt anxious parent would have expreſſed toward her child, but in vain implored my father to agree to my ſpending a few months in town. The following year, ſhe again came to Brighton, and apparently in an ill ſtate of health, yet her daughters ſhe informed us were gone to ſpend the ſummer in Scotland, unmindful of the debilitated ſtate to which ſhe was reduced. As my father's objection to my going to London, had ariſen from his diſliking the manners of the young ladies, he no longer refuſed Mrs. Anderſon's requeſt, and I accompanied her to the metropolis about five week's ago, as ſhe pretended that ſome relations out of the country had unexpectedly arrived in town.

'Previous to my quitting the country, ſhe had frequently told me, that my manners to gentlemen were much too conſtrained, and during our journey, ſhe gave me a variety of inſtructions reſpecting the conduct ſhe wiſhed me to obſerve. It would appear like folly and vanity, if I was to repeat half the nonſenſe which I heard reſpecting my future eſtabliſhment in life; but ſhe aſſured me at her houſe I ſhould meet the firſt people of faſhion, and it would be my own fault if I was not a nobleman's wife.

'Upon my arrival I was introduced to two young ladies, whom my protectreſs informed me boarded in her houſe; and I could not help thinking it ſtrange that the widow of a general officer was obliged to adopt ſuch a method for ſupport. However, I liked their manners much better than thoſe of the miſs Anderſons, who I was delighted at hearing had no intention of returning to town, and in the evening we were joined by two or three noblemen, who ſeemed to be upon the intimate footing of friends. One among the number, was ſo pointed in his attentions to me, as to excite a degree of embarraſſment not to be deſcribed, which Mrs. Anderſon perceiving, deſired his lordſhip to conſider that I was unaccuſtomed to ſo much gallantry, and was merely a child. Though I had learned to dance at Lewes, a dancing maſter was ſent for, the day after my arrival in town, and I could not help feeling aſtoniſhed at the compliment he paid

my perſon, which I thought more diſguſting than thoſe I had received the preceding night. Not any of the clothes I had brought from the country were thought faſhionable enough for me to appear in, in town, and in the courſe of a week my perſon was ſo metamorphoſed, that by my neareſt connections I could not have been known. During that period, I had not ſeen lord Clifton, which was the name of the gentleman who had addreſſed me in ſo complimentary a ſtrain; but he again made his appearance, declared he had been wretched during his abſence, and ſaid many handſome things to my protectreſs upon the change which ſhe had made. He then preſented her with a ring, and me with a pair of diamond bracelets, which he implored me to wear for his ſake; and upon my informing him that my parents never ſuffered me to receive preſents from any gentleman, he ſaid he was ſure they would not extend the prohibition to himſelf; for my beloved Charlotte, ſaid he, though this is rather a premature declaration, it is from you I expect to derive all my future happineſs in life.'

'While I was liſtening with aſtoniſhment to this unexpected declaration, Mrs. Anderſon had ſlipped out of the room, and upon turning round to appeal to her, upon the impropriety of receiving his lordſhip's preſent, I had the mortification of diſcovering that we were left alone. He then informed me, that he had ſeen me laſt ſummer at Brighton, and that I had made the moſt laſting impreſſion upon his heart, but that he had been fearful of making application to my father, leaſt he ſhould think it neceſſary to inform the earl; adding, that as he was in great meaſure dependant upon his father, he dare not act in open oppoſition to his deſigns. But, continued he, my adorable angel, I find that my affections are no longer in my power, and if you will not conſent to a private marriage, you will for ever deſtroy my tranquillity and peace! This, ſir, is but a ſmall part of the converſation that paſſed between us, and upon my ſaying I never would marry without my father's conſent, he threw himſelf on the floor in an agony of vexation, and actually burſt into a flood of tears.'

'Alarmed by his agitation, Mrs. Anderſon reentered the apartment, accuſed me of ingratitude, inhumanity, and caprice, and repreſented his lordſhip's virtues in ſuch glowing colours, that I told him I would give him a poſitive anſwer in a week. During that time, lord Clifton was conſtantly at Mrs. Anderſon's, and his attentions to me were more delicate than I can deſcribe; in ſhort, they made ſuch an impreſſion upon my unſuſpicious nature, that I could no longer refuſe giving him the moſt decided proofs of my regard. Still I felt a repugnance at taking ſo important a ſtep as marriage, without conſulting thoſe, who had a right to direct my choice; but theſe ſcruples my eloquent lover daily contrived to leſſen by painting the happineſs they would experience, when he could openly proclaim me as his wife.

'The moſt elegant clothes were bought for my wedding, and as his lordſhip was rather in a delicate ſtate of health, it was determined that we ſhould immediately ſet off for Liſbon, as it was apprehended we ſhould not be moleſted by the French. Though I had been accuſtomed to aſſociate with reſpectable characters, yet they were ſtrangers to that refinement of ſenſibility which my lover poſſeſſed, and I conſidered him of ſo ſuperior an order, that my tenderneſs was mingled with a kind of veneration and reſpect.

'Though Mrs. Anderſon had frequently evening parties, yet we ſeldom joined the lively throng, as lord Clifton expreſſed a diſlike to thoſe kind of meetings, and uſed on thoſe occaſions always to amuſe me with ſome entertaining book. The authors which he ſelected for my entertainment, were ſuch, as deſcribed love in

the moſt faſcinating ſtyle; and were calculated to undermine thoſe virtuous principles, which with ſo much care had been inſtilled into my breaſt. Still his conduct to me was tender and reſpectful, and he never attempted a greater liberty than kiſſing my hand: once, it is true, he ſeemed to be thrown off of his precaution, and in deſcribing the charms of love, ridiculed the folly of Hymen's bands. Finding, however, that he had excited apprehenſions in my boſom, he aſſured me, that he had merely been in jeſt; called me his betrothed wife; told me he venerated my virtuous ſentiments, and ſaid, he did not doubt but he ſhould introduce me as lady Clifton, even before his father's death, as he had already intruſted a near relation with his intended marriage, who had promiſed to uſe his influence with the earl.'

Mrs. Anderſon's affection for me ſeemed to increaſe, as the time approached for our ſeparation, for we were to quit her abode as ſoon as the ceremony had taken place; and to-morrow is the day, which was to have terminated every hope of happineſs for the reſt of my life. From the time of my becoming an inmate in Mrs. Anderſon's family, I obſerved that one of the ſervants always regarded me with a degree of pity in her face, and I thought ſeemed to wiſh for an opportunity of ſpeaking to me, but we never had an opportunity of being alone. I ſlept in a ſmall room through that of my protectreſs, whith had a bolt on the outſide; and upon my wiſhing to ſay ſomething to her one night after I had been to my chamber, I was aſtoniſhed at finding myſelf confined. I knocked, but no reply was made to me, upon which, I concluded ſhe was aſleep; and my ideas were ſo completely occupied with my approaching nuptials, that the next morning the circumſtance never occurred to my mind.

Upon retiring to my chamber yeſterday evening, I found my ſpirits unuſually depreſſed; Mrs. Anderſon, as uſual, accompanied me, and remained until I was nearly undreſſed, and juſt as ſhe was going to leave me, the ſervant, whoſe countenance had often ſtruck me, entered the room, and placing the ruſhlight in the chimney, gave a ſignificant look toward the bed. A thouſand alarming ideas ruſhed into my imagination the moment I found myſelf alone; I threw myſelf upon my knees, and implored the protection of that Being, who is always ready to ſuccour the diſtreſſed! After offering up my prayers to the throne of mercy, my terrors and apprehenſions ſeemed to ſubſide, and I approached the bed, lifted up the baſes, but ſaw not any thing to agitate or diſcompoſe me there. I began to ſuppoſe my fears had been merely conjectural, when the thought ſtruck me of turning down the clothes, and I diſcovered the dreadful gulph, which gaped wide to receive me, upon peruſing the worthy girl's note. And to give you, ſir, an idea of the horror of my feelings, I requeſt you will take the trouble of peruſing it yourſelf.

To Miſs CHARLOTTE.

Madam,

Ever ſenſe you hav bin in the hoſe, I hav trid to ſpake to you, but that vicked crater my miſerſe, has niver let us bee a minite tugither; but tho her arts hav ruend me, yit I can not bare to hare of her vicked duings in making you belif you be gohing for to be mared to a lod. O my dare yonge lidi, you ar only to be mared over the brumſtik, and my lods an man, is to be dreſed up al in vite; an thin you ar to be caled mi ladi but you vil only be runed lik me. But dare mis dont bee fant harted, for God in his godnes vil raſe you hup frends old Jeſſebelle, has ve cal her, is gohing to hav grate dohings to nite, and I vil com if youl be redhy, an let you hout of your cage, an thin you may run awa to your frends. So no more hat preſent ſorm

you dutfull,

PEGY WOD.

It is impoſſible, ſir, to deſcribe the horror of my ſenſations at peruſing theſe almoſt unintelligible lines; however, they were ſufficiently clear to convince me that ruin was inevitable, unleſs I eſcaped. I inſtantly dreſſed myſelf in the plaineſt gown in my poſſeſſion, again implored the Almighty to take me under his care, and after waiting near two hours in a ſtate of agonizing expectation, I had the happineſs of ſeeing my deliverer open the door. She held her ſhoes in her hand, and pointed to me to adopt the ſame precaution, but did not articulate a ſingle word; and upon paſſing through the room of the deteſtable Mrs. Anderſon, I obſerved one of the ſervants ſleeping in a chair. She conducted me into a ſmall cloſet at the top of the ſtaircaſe, having obſerved the precaution of careſully bolting the door of the room in which I had ſlept, and then ran down ſtairs to ſee if ſhe was wanted, promiſing in a few minutes to come to me again. My ſituation until her return was more terrible than can be imagined, for I was abſolutely terrified with the different noiſes in the houſe, and was aſtoniſhed at never before having heard any thing like them, without reflecting that the apartment in which I had ſlept was very remote. After waiting more than half an hour, Peggy returned to me with the joyful news, that all was ſafe; for her miſtreſs, ſhe informed me, was completely intoxicated, and would ſoon be obliged to be carried to bed. I had the miſery of learning that I had for ſix weeks been the inhabitant of one of the moſt infamous houſes in London; that the carriage, the preceding ſummer, had been overturned by deſign, as lord Clifton had unfortunately been captivated with my perſon, and had promiſed a thouſand guineas to Mrs. Anderſon, if ſhe would contrive to get me under her care. The virtuous manner in which I had been educated, convinced her I ſhould never liſten to any improper propoſals, therefore it was determined that he ſhould make me an offer of his hand, and the mock ceremony was to be performed by his lordſhip's valet, who providentially had made a confidant of Peggy Wood. This unfortunate girl, ſir, had been hired in the country, and the moſt cruel arts were practiſed upon her before ſhe was initiated into vice; her character was loſt, her friends refuſed to receive her, and ſhe was compelled to remain a dependant upon the being ſhe deſpiſed.

It was near five o'clock in the morning before the family ſeparated, and it was at firſt determined that Peggy ſhould accompany me in my flight, but the diſſipated life the poor girl had led, produced ſuch an effect upon her conſtitution, that ſhe was unable to endure any kind of fatigue; we therefore agreed, that as ſoon as I was reſtored to my parents, my father ſhould come to town, and force her away. Delighted as I was at the idea of obtaining my liberty, I could not take leave of my deliverer without a thouſand fears, leſt ſhe ſhould be ſuſpected of having aided my elopement, though ſhe did not ſeem to entertain any apprehenſion herſelf, but as ſhe was as great a ſtranger to London at I was, ſhe was not able to inſtruct me which path to purſue. Providence, however, ſir, mercifully directed me, and my heart gratefully acknowledges the kindneſs I have received; and in addition to your goodneſs, I flatter myſelf you will tell me by what conveyance you think I can with ſafety return to my friends.

[To be concluded in the next.]

ACCOUNT OF THE INHABITANTS OF CEYLON.

THE inhabitants of the ſeacoaſts of Ceylon are compoſed of a variety of different races: at Columbo in particular the natives of every country in India appear to have their repreſentatives. This account, however, will be confined to the deſcription of thoſe races that are ſtationary in the iſland, and form a conſiderable portion of its population; and firſt, of the Portugueſe, Dutch, and Malays, who have long been ſettled here for the purpoſes of conqueſt or commerce.

The race of Portugueſe might be ſuppoſed, from their name, to be the deſcendants of that European nation whoſe appellation they bear; but this in fact is by no means the caſe. The name is indeed derived from the ſpurious deſcendants of that people by native women, who were ſcattered in great numbers over this iſland and all their other ſettlements in India. But both the manners and colour of theſe original Indian Portugueſe, are now equally loſt among that race which now bears their name. The preſent Portugueſe of Ceylon are a mixture of the ſpurious deſcendants of the ſeveral European poſſeſſors of that iſland by native women, joined to a number of Moors and Malabars. A colour more approaching to black than white, with a particular mode of dreſs, half Indian, and half European, is all that is neceſſary to procure the appellation of a Portugueſe. Theſe people are found in all the European ſettlements in India, particularly thoſe belonging to the Dutch, who often form intermarriages with them.

The manners of the Portugueſe differ from thoſe of the Moors, Malabars, and other Mahometans. They affect rather to adopt thoſe of the Europeans; and wear hats inſtead of the turbans, and breeches in place of the pieces of cloth, which other Indians wear wrapped round their waiſts, and drawn together between their legs like looſe trowſers. At preſent it is cuſtomary for any black fellow who can procure a hat, and ſhoes, with a veſt and breeches, and who has acquired ſome little ſmattering of the Catholic religion, to aſpire to the title of a Portugueſe, a diſtinction of which he is extremely proud.

Although the black Portugueſe univerſally profeſs the Chriſtian religion, and are commonly Roman catholics, yet they retain many pagan cuſtoms, and their religion may be conſidered as a compound of both. The affect to derive their religion as well as their deſcent from the European Portugueſe, though the name be almoſt the only thing they retain of either. The Dutch have allowed prieſts and other miſſionaries to go among them; and there are many of them who profeſs the Proteſtant religion and go to the churches of the Dutch. In general they are ſomewhat fairer than the Moors and Malabars; but thoſe who are ſo to any conſiderable degree, may be looked upon as the offſpring of the Dutch in later times; for the blood of the European Portugueſe has been ſo intermixed as to leave ſcarce a trace behind. Complexions of all ſorts are indeed found among this mongrel race, from a jetty black to a ſickly yellow, or tawny hue. Their hair, which is black or dark brown, is worn long, and uſually tied, contrary to the cuſtom of the Mahometans. Some of their women are pretty, and much admired for their figures. The men are about the middle ſize, ſlender, lank, and ill-made, ſo as eaſily to be diſtinguiſhed. Their whole expence runs upon dreſs; they are fond to exceſs of ſhow and finery, and never ſtir out without putting on their beſt clothes. They are lazy, treacherous, effeminate, and paſſionate to exceſs; and retain ſo much of the character of their boaſted progenitors, as to be diſtinguiſhed for a ridiculous

* See a Deſcription of the Iſland of Ceylon, in our preceding Volume, page 203.

pride. Like the Portugueſe of Europe, they have always a long ſtring of ſounding names, beginning with don Juan, don Fernando, &c.

They have no regular caſt, and are uſually eſteemed the worſt race of people in India. Originally a ſpurious and outcaſt brood, they retain only the blemiſhes which tarniſhed the characters of their anceſtors; and they combine all the vices of the Europeans and Indians, without any of their virtues.

The Dutch, and indeed the Europeans of every other nation but our own, who are born and reſide in India, differ much in their habits and modes of life from thoſe of Europe. Our own countrymen alone, in whatever climate or ſituation they are placed, ſtill remain ſteady to the manners and cuſtoms of Great Britain; and though the prejudices of the people among whom they live, and the nature of the climate, may force them to make occaſional deviations, yet they never altogether loſe ſight of their native habits. The chief trait of the original Dutch character which thoſe in Ceylon retain, is their fondneſs for gin and tobacco: in other reſpects they adopt the cuſtoms and liſtleſs habits of the country. They make no effort to encreaſe their knowledge, and even appear to have no curioſity, nor enjoyment in any thing but ſmoking, and paying viſits; of courſe they are ignorant and ſtupid, without capacity and without deſire of excelling by exertion. Their children are treated with the ſame neglect as other objects, and are uſually committed to the care of the ſlaves. Their ſelfiſh and contracted minds become equally callous to the feelings of humanity, and their poor ſlaves are treated with cruelty upon the ſlighteſt provocation, and often from mere caprice.

The converſation of women, which has tended ſo much to humanize the world, forms very little of a Ceyloneſe Dutchman's entertainment. Although the ladies make part of the company, yet they experience none of that attention and politeneſs to which the fair ſex are accuſtomed in Europe. After the firſt ſalutations are over, the men ſeem to forget that the ladies are at all preſent; and will ſit a whole evening talking politics over their pipes, without once addreſſing the women or taking the leaſt notice of them. Indeed they avoid as much as poſſible this dead weight on their ſocial enjoyments, and therefore uſually get into another room by themſelves; or if they have not an opportunity to do ſo, they club together at one end of the room, and leave the other to the ladies.

When ſuch is the treatment which they experience from the men, it is not to be expected that the women can be very poliſhed or ſkilled in the arts of pleaſing. Their education indeed is ſuch, that accompliſhments of any deſcription are not to be expected among them. From their infancy they are entirely given up to the management of the female ſlaves, from whom they imbibe manners, habits, and ſuperſtitious notions, on which they can never afterward diveſt themſelves. Under this tuition they continue till they get married; and in this new ſtate, from ſuch an education, it cannot be expected that they ſhould make any conſiderable improvements. As they find ſuch a cold reception among the men, they are glad to return to the attentions and obeiſance paid them in the ſociety of their ſlaves, to which they have been moſt accuſtomed. Their morals being derived from the ſame ſource, are equally deſtitute of dignity or virtue as their manners are of politeneſs.

Although the men would not appear very amiable in the eyes of our Britiſh ladies, yet their Dutch wives look upon them with the greateſt veneration and affection. Conſcious of their own defects, and always kept at a great diſtance by their huſbands, they look upon their careſſes as a high honour, and are therefore extremely jealous of their favours. And yet their own manners after marriage are

the worſt calculated poſſible to conciliate the attachment of their huſbands; indeed, in men of any delicacy, they could only produce averſion and diſguſt. The Dutch ladies, while young and unmarried, dreſs well and are tolerable in their perſons, and many among them pretty and even handſome; but afterward they contract ſuch lazy and indolent habits that they become coarſe, corpulent, and dirty in their perſons; and their dreſs during the day is ſlovenly and negligent to exceſs. Their complexions are for the moſt part of a pale deadly white, although there are ſome exceptions to this obſervation, and a few female countenances to be found that might be accounted handſome even in the opinion of an European. Thoſe women, who have a mixture of the native blood are eaſily diſtinguiſhed by a tinge in the colour of the ſkin, and their ſtrong thick black hair; marks which are not to be removed in the courſe of many generations.

Dancing is the principal amuſement of the younger women; while the chief pleaſure of the married and elderly ladies conſiſts in paying formal and ceremonious viſits to each other. To theſe viſits they go attended by a number of ſlave girls, dreſſed out for the occaſion. Theſe girls walk after them carrying their betel-boxes, or are employed in bearing umbrellas over the heads of their miſtreſſes, who ſeldom wear any headdreſs, but have their hair combed cloſely back and ſhining with cocoa-nut oil. Their chief finery conſiſts in theſe female attendants, and their ſplendour is eſtimated by the number of them which they can afford to keep. Theſe ſlaves are the comelieſt girls that can be procured, and their miſtreſſes in general behave very kindly to them. With that caprice however, which always attends power in the hands of the ignorant and narrow-minded, the Dutch ladies frequently behave in a very cruel and unjuſt manner to their female attendants, upon very trifling occaſions, and in particular on the ſlighteſt ſuſpicion of jealouſy.

The Malays form a conſiderable proportion of the inhabitants of Ceylon. This race, which is known to Europeans chiefly by the accounts of its barbarous ferocity, is widely ſcattered over the eaſtern parts of India. Their original empire lies in the peninſula of Malacca; and thence they have extended themſelves over Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, the Phillippines and a vaſt number of other iſlands in the Archipelago of India. It is difficult to determine the date of their firſt introduction into Ceylon; but it has for many years been cuſtomary for the Dutch to bring them to their ſettlements in Aſia and Africa, for the purpoſe of carrying on various branches of trade and manufactures, and alſo to employ them as ſoldiers and ſervants.

The religion, laws, manners, and cuſtoms of the Malays, as well as their dreſs, colour and perſons, differ very much from thoſe of all the other inhabitants of Aſia. The Malays of the various iſlands and ſettlements alſo differ among themſelves, according to the habits and appearance of the nations among whom they are diſperſed. Yet ſtill they are all eaſily diſtinguiſhed to be of the Malay race. For, although they intermarry with the Moors and other caſts, particularly in Ceylon, and by this means acquire a much darker colour than is natural to a Malay; ſtill their characteriſtic features are ſo ſtrikingly predominant, that they cannot be miſtaken. Thoſe who are born and brought up in the European colonies, naturally contract more of the habits of civilized ſociety; they never indeed get entirely rid of their natural ferocity, but they become much leſs cruel and vindictive, than that part of their race who reſide in the peninſula of Malacca and their other native poſſeſſions.

The men are of middling ſtature, remarkably well proportioned, and of a ſtrong and muſcular make. Their

legs and arms are particularly well-ſhaped, and very ſlender at the wriſts and ancles; an ill made leg is ſcarcely ever to be ſeen among them. They are of a light brown or yellow colour, which approaches nearer to a copper hue in their old age, or when they are much expoſed to the ſun. Their forehead is broad and flat; their eyes ſmall, black and very deep ſunk; their noſe flattiſh, broad toward the noſtrils, with a ſort of curve at the extremity approaching the lip. Their hair is long, coarſe and black, and always moiſtened with a quantity of cocoa-nut oil. By ſome it is worn flowing looſe over their ſhoulders, while others twiſt it up into a knot which they faſten on the back of the head with tortoiſe-ſhell combs. Some of the poorer ſort bind it up with a coloured handkerchief. None of the Malays ſuffer their beards to grow, but pluck out the hairs as ſoon as they appear, it being againſt their religion to allow them to remain.

The greater number of Malays have remarkably ugly faces; and their features ſtrongly indicate their ferocious, treacherous, and revengeful diſpoſitions. Yet ſome have comely countenances; and many of the women may even be accounted beautiful, eſpecially ſuch as are not much expoſed to the ſun, and have not had their noſes compreſſed. It is a common practice with the mothers, ſoon after the birth of their children, to break by compreſſion the griſtle of the upper part of their noſes, as the flat noſe among this people is looked upon as a ſymbol of beauty. The men are extremely jealous, and particularly of the decided preference which the women give to Europeans. They never pardon infidelity in a wife; and although they allow an European to have connection with one unmarried woman, yet he runs little leſs riſk from the object of his affections, than from a jealous huſband. The paſſions of the women are equally violent with thoſe of the men, and they are equally capable of taking the moſt terrible revenge. If their European paramour offers them the ſlighteſt neglect, or if he is ſuſpected of having formed another attachment, they will not heſitate to revenge themſelves either by ſtabbing him, or the equally fatal method of adminiſtering poiſon; a practice to which they are very prone.

The habits of the Malays in their infancy, are calculated to render them hardy. They go naked till about twelve years of age; and are ſhortly after married. As they are of the Mahometan religion, the higher caſts marry as many wives as they can maintain; while their poverty reſtricts the lower claſſes to one wife.

The amuſements of the Malays are ſuited to their diſpoſitions, and are either bold, vigorous or ferocious. Both the men and women are intemperately fond of bathing, and often go into the bath ſeveral times in one day. They have a game which very nearly reſembles our football; only the ball they uſe is made of twiſted ratan. But the amuſements of which they are particularly fond, are gaming and cock-fighting. Their paſſion for theſe is frequently carried to ſuch exceſs, as to be attended with the moſt dreadful conſequences. The poorer ſort in particular, after having been ſtript of every thing elſe, will ſell themſelves and their families to procure the means of gratifying their paſſion for play; and after having loſt their laſt ſtake, they often ſacrifice themſelves and their lucky antagoniſt to their deſpair.

The Malays have a great variety of muſical inſtruments, which are uſually employed in a band or concert at their religious ceremonies, their marriages, and feaſts. On theſe occaſions that barbarous and groteſque pomp, in which uncivilized nations ſo much delight, is diſplayed in great profuſion. A vaſt number of flags, ſtreamers, figures of their gods, of men and beaſts, which ſeem to delight in proportion to the hideouſneſs of their appearance, are carried along

in great pomp. The *Gong gong* is one of their principal inſtruments. It conſiſts of a large hollow plate of a compound metal, ſo contrived in ſubſtance and ſhape as to return a very loud noiſe when ſtruck. The *Tom tom*, is a drum of a peculiar faſhion; and other inſtruments are formed of bamboes bound together with iron wire, ſomething in the ſhape of a dulcimer. By means of this variety of inſtruments, which are made of all ſizes from the moſt unwieldy bulk to the ſmalleſt, an effect not unpleaſing is produced, from the contrariety of ſounds.

A ſkill in medicinal herbs is almoſt univerſal among this race; and they have a variety of preſcriptions for curing diſeaſes by their application. This knowledge is owing to their peculiar fondneſs for gardening, and rearing all ſorts of plants, an employment in which they are engaged from their infancy; and it is from among them that the European gentlemen are anxious to procure their gardeners.

They are uncommonly ingenious in all ſorts of cane-work, and in ratanning couches and chairs; and are accounted capital builders of *bungaloes*, or houſes of the cocoa-tree.

In other reſpects, ſuch as the manner of eating their victuals, and their modes of ſalutation, they very much reſemble the natives of the Malabar and Coromandel coaſts. They are, however, ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed from them, and indeed from all the other natives of India, by the difference of their inſtitutions, and the peculiar ferocity of their diſpoſitions.

The Malays, on receiving any real or imaginary injury, make no heſitation to ſacrifice their own life in taking away that of the object they have marked out for vengeance, and often do incredible miſchief with the weapon which they wear about them. This is a kind of dagger, called a *Kreeſe* or *Criſſe*; the blade of which is of the beſt tempered ſteel, and often made of a ſerpentine form, ſo as to inflict a moſt dreadful wound. The handle is of ivory or wood, carved into the figure of a man's body and arms, with a head repreſenting ſomething between that of a man and a bird. This they call their *Swammy*, or god; and to this figure they make their *ſalam*, or obeiſance, before they draw the kreeſe to execute any bloody purpoſe on which they have determined. After they have by this ceremony confirmed their vow, they draw their kreeſe, and never again ſheath it till they have drenched it in blood. So reſolute is this ferocious determination, that if their adverſary is placed beyond the reach of their vengeance, ſooner than infringe it, they will plunge the dagger into the body of a pig, a dog, a chicken, or any live animal they chance to meet. The ſcabbard is made of wood, frequently ornamented with gold or ſilver wire: and the whole appearance of the weapon, as well as the mode of wearing it on the right ſide, greatly reſembles that found in the ancient dreſs of the Celtic nations. This terrible inſtrument is rendered ſtill more ſo by its being always poiſoned; generally by the juice of ſome poiſonous herbs, and among thoſe who can any wiſe procure it, with poiſon from the Upa tree.

In the uſe of their fatal weapon they are particularly dextrous, and like other barbarians make no ſcruple to employ treachery or ſurpriſe in deſtroying their enemies. They generally watch their opportunity, and ſtab their victim in the back or ſhoulder before he is aware. Theſe daggers, the inſtruments of their ferocious cruelty, are looked upon by them with a degree of veneration. They deſcend, as a moſt ſacred relic, from father to ſon, and from generation to generation: no money is accounted ſufficient to purchaſe them, and no violence can compel their owners to give them up. When a Malay is preſſed in battle, he will ſooner be ſlain, or kill himſelf, than ſurrender his kreeſe to the enemy.

Before entering upon any deſperate enterpriſe, it is cuſtomary with the Malays to take opium, or, as they term it, to *bang* themſelves. This plant, the bang, which is uſed among the natives of India as an inſtrument of intoxication, is found over all that continent as well as in Ceylon. It is a ſmall ſhrub, with a leaf in ſhape and texture reſembling that of the tobacco, but not larger than the leaf of the ſage. From this plant a ſpecies of opium is extracted, and being made into balls, is taken internally, and operates in the ſame manner as a dram of ſpirits among the European nations. The leaf of the bang is alſo dried and ſmoked like tobacco, with a ſtill ſtronger intoxicating effect than the opium. After employing this method of rendering themſelves inſenſible to danger, they are prepared for the moſt ſanguinary achievements, and ruſh blindfold into every atrocity. The horrid barbarities, however, which they commit on ſuch occaſions, are not ſo much to be attributed to their intoxication as to the natural ſavage cruelty of their diſpoſitions.

The manner in which the Malays undertake to accompliſh their revenge gives the moſt ſtriking example of their ferocious diſpoſitions. When a Malay has ſuffered any injury or grievance, real or imaginary, and ever ſo ſlight, the moſt dreadful thirſt of revenge appears to take poſſeſſion of his whole ſoul. He makes a vow to deſtroy the object of his vengeance, together with every other perſon who comes in his way, till he meet death from ſome hand or other. To prepare himſelf for this dreadful exploit, he takes a large quantity of bang, then draws his poiſoned kreeſe, and ruſhing headlong into the ſtreet, ſtabs indiſcriminately every one that comes in his way; at the ſame time crying aloud, *amok*, *amok*, or kill, kill, from whence this horrid mode of revenge is termed by Europeans *running a muck*. The fury of the devoted wretch is indeſcribable, and the miſchief he often does is very great before a lucky ſhot brings him down.

The frequency of mucks in the Dutch ſettlements, ſeems attributable to the manner in which that nation behaved to their Malay dependants. The ſlaves and ſervants of the Dutch were chiefly compoſed of that race; and it is among this claſs that the inſtances of ſavage fury which we have deſcribed uſually occurred. Since the arrival of the Engliſh at Ceylon, the barbarous practice has almoſt been unknown; and no other cauſe can be aſſigned for this difference in the conduct of theſe people, but the ſuperior mildneſs of the Engliſh government. The Malay troops are armed and clothed much in the ſame manner as the European, with the exception of ſhoes, the wearing of which is contrary to the rules of their religion; inſtead of them they uſe a particular ſpecies of ſandal. Along with their other arms they always wear their kreeſes or poiſoned daggers by their ſides: in the heat of an engagement they often throw down their muſket and bayonet, and ruſhing upon the enemy with theſe kreeſes carry terror and deſtruction wherever they come. From their natural intrepidity and hardineſs, they are well calculated to become very uſeful and ſerviceable troops if properly officered and commanded. It requires however much management, much attention to their tempers, ſkill in regulating their economy, firmneſs in maintaining diſcipline, and at the ſame time great caution in puniſhing miſbehaviour, to make our ſervice reap in its full extent the advantage that might be derived from them. The patience with which the Malays ſubmit to the ſentence of their court-martial, and their refraining from revenge when they are aſſured that juſtice is intended them, is a ſtriking argument in ſupport of what has been already advanced, that mild and generous treatment will in the end have the effect of ſubduing their natural ferocity.

[To be continued.]

SPONTANEOUS DECOMPOSITION OF A FABRIC OF SILK.

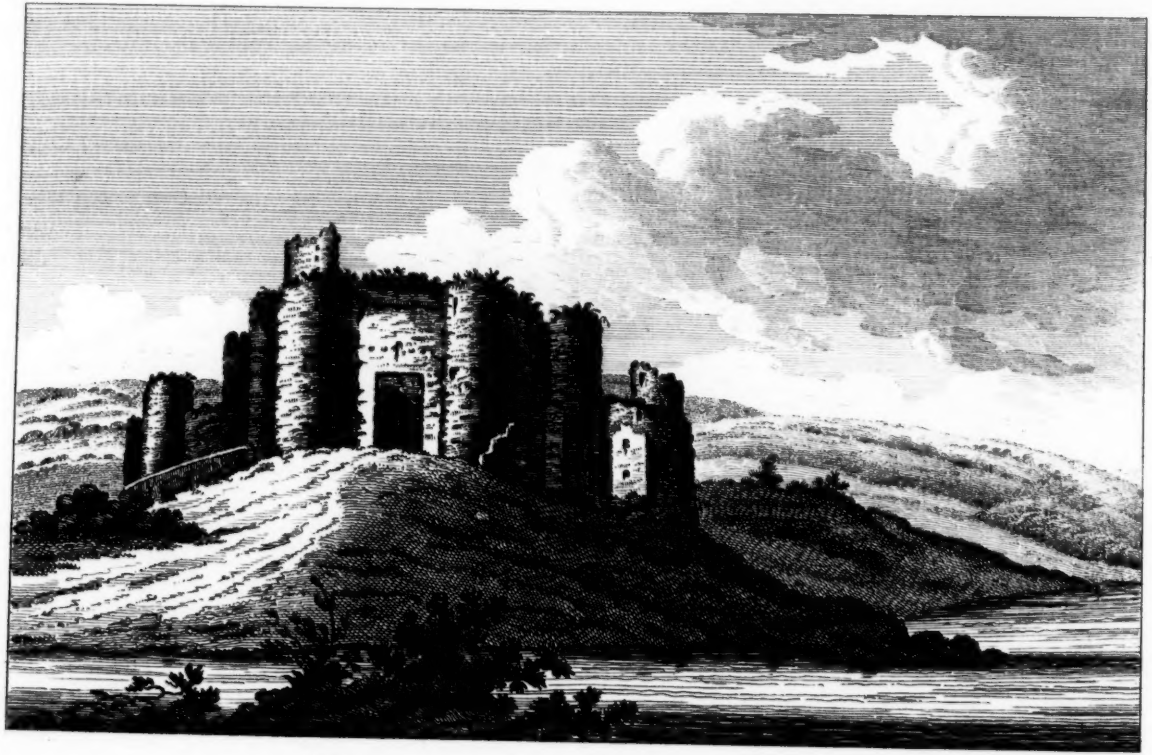
[From the American Medical Repoſitory, vol. 5.]

ON the night of March 19, 1802, during the ſeſſion of congreſs at Waſhington, Jonathan Dayton, one of the ſenators then attending from the ſtate of New Jerſey, ſuſtained a loſs of a pair of black ſilk ſtockings in an uncommon manner. On undreſſing himſelf at bed-time, his ſtockings were the laſt of his garments which he took off. The weather being cold, he wore two pair, the inner of wool and the outer of ſilk. When he ſtripped off the ſilk ſtockings, he let them drop on a woollen carpet lying by the bedſide; and one of his garters, which was of white woollen ferretin, fell down with the ſtockings. The under ſtockings, on being pulled off, were thrown at ſome diſtance, near the foot of the bed. He obſerved, on ſeparating and removing the ſilk ſtockings from the woollen ones, that there was an unuſual ſnapping and ſparkling of electric matter. But as he had been long acquainted with the appearance, it attracted but tranſient notice.

He fell aſleep, and remained undiſturbed until morning, when the ſervant entered to kindle the fire. The man obſerved that one of the leather ſlippers, lying on the carpet, and partly covered by one of the ſtockings, was very much burnt. Mr. Dayton then roſe, and found that the leather over which the ſtockings had lain was converted to a coal. The ſtockings were changed to a brown, or what is commonly called a butternut colour. And although, to the eye, the ſtitches of the legs, and even the threads of their clocks, appeared to be firm and entire; yet, as ſoon as an attempt was made to touch and handle them, they were found to be wholly deſtitute of coheſion, their texture and ſtructure being altogether deſtroyed. Nothing but a remnant of carbonic matter was left, except that a part of the heel of one of the ſtockings was not decompoſed.

Though this deſtruction of the ſtockings took place during the night, when nobody ſaw the manner and circumſtances of the proceſs, yet there was evidence enough of the evolution of much caloric while it was going on; for every thing in contact with the ſtockings was turned to coal or cinder. Beſide the ſlipper before mentioned, the garter was burned. It had fallen partly on the carpet, and partly on and between the ſtockings. As far as it touched the ſtockings it was perfectly diſorganized and carbonated, and immediately beyond that limit was as ſound as ever. The part of the carpet, with its fringe, which lay between the ſtockings and the floor, was in like manner totally deſtroyed, juſt as far as it was covered by the ſtockings, and no further. The wooden plank, which was of pitch-pine, was alſo conſiderably ſcorched; and beneath the place where the thickeſt folds of the ſtockings had lain was converted to charcoal or lamp-black to a conſiderable depth. In throwing down the ſtockings when they were pulled off, it happened that about a third part of the length of one of them fell not upon the carpet, but upon the bare floor. This part of the ſtocking was decompoſed like the reſt, and the floor very much ſcorched where it had lain.

There was very little fire on the hearth, and the little there was was eight or nine feet diſtant. The candle had been carefully extinguiſhed, and ſtood on a table in another direction, and about equally diſtant. Indeed, no application of burning coals or of lighted candles could have produced the effects which have been deſcribed. It would ſeem that the combuſtion, if it may be ſo called, proceeded from a ſurcharge of caloric, or electricity, in the ſilk, accumulated by means not well underſtood; and that, not being referable to any known external



Kidwelly Castle, Carmarthenshire.

agent, it may, in the preſent ſtate of our information, be termed ſpontaneous.

The ſubſtances chiefly conſumed were leather, wool, ſilk, and reſinous wood. The linen lining of the ſlipper was indeed deſtroyed as far as the leather it touched was deſtroyed. But where it did not come in contact, it eſcaped, and the fire ſhowed no diſpoſition to burn even the linen beyond the boundaries preſcribed to it on the leather.

What is the theory of this phenomenon? With what other facts is it immediately connected? Whatever men of ſcience may determine on theſe points, one thing ſeems to be evident, that if ſpontaneous combuſtion can happen thus to bodies ſo little inflammable as leather, ſilk, and wool, that inſtances of its occurrence in bodies eaſier to burn are more frequent than is generally ſuppoſed.

ACCOUNT OF KIDWELLY CASTLE, IN CARMARTHENSHIRE:

With a VIEW *of it in its preſent State* *.

KIDWELLY Caſtle is ſeven miles ſouth of Carmarthen, on an eminence, by the ſide of a ſmall river, which, a little below the town of Kidwelly, enters a creek of Carmarthen bay, near the mouth of the Towy. Leland ſays, 'Between new Kidwelly and the old is a bridge over the Litle Wendraith. The old town is prettily waullid, and hath hard by the waul a caſtel; the old town is nearly al deſolated, but the caſtel is meately well kept up. It belonged to the duke of Lancaſter. Alice de Londres, wife to one of the dukes of Lancaſter, lay in the caſtel, and repaired it. Reparation was done on the caſtel again the coming of Henry VII into Wenceland.'

This caſtle was built ſoon after the conqueſt by Maurice de Londres, one of the twelve Norman knights who conquered Glamorganſhire. It was deſtroyed in the year 1093, by Kadogan ap Blethyn; rebuilt in 1190, by Rees, prince of South Wales; again demoliſhed by Rees, ſon of Gruffyth ap Rees; and being once more reedified underwent various revolutions till it fell to the crown. It was granted by Henry VII to Sir Rice ap Thomas, knight of the garter; but being forfeited by his grandſon Rice Griffith, it was granted to Richard Vaughan, earl of Carbery, lord preſident of Wales. The ruins of this caſtle are very large, and plainly indicate its former magnificence. It is now uninhabited, though tolerably entire.

Camden mentions a ſingular duty that the lords of Ogmore of Kidwelly were bound by their tenure to perform; which was, that in caſe the king or his chief juſtice ſhould lead an army into the diſtrict of Kidwelly, they were to conduct that army, with their banners and all their forces, through the midſt of the county of Neath to Lechor.

* This View is engraved from one given by Mr. Barber in his late 'Tour throughout South Wales and Monmouthſhire.'

REMARKS *on the* APPLICATION *of* SCIENCE *to the* PURPOSES *of the* FRENCH REVOLUTION.

[By J. B. Biot, of the National Inſtitute.]

AT the commencement of the year 1793, France was on the brink of deſtruction: Landrecy, le Queſnoy, Condé, and Valenciennes, were in the hands of the enemy; Toulon was delivered to the Engliſh, and numerous fleets overſpread the ſea, and diſembarked troops on our coaſts. In the interior, famine and terror prevailed; La Vendée, Lyons, and Marſeilles, were in a ſtate of rebellion. No arms, no gunpowder was

to be found; no ally that was willing or able to procure them for us; and our only reſource lay in an anarchical government, unprovided with any plan of defence or offence, and only active in perſecution and oppreſſion. Every circumſtance ſeemed to announce that the republic was on the point of periſhing before it had exiſted a ſingle year. In this perilous criſis, two new members were invited into the committee of public welfare, who had the charge of the military operations. They organized the armies, formed the plans of the campaigns, and provided ſubſiſtence and ammunition for the armies. It was neceſſary to arm nine hundred thouſand men, and, what was more difficult, it was neceſſary to prove the practicability of this prodigious effort to a people prone to ſuſpicion, and always ready to cry out treachery. For this purpoſe the ancient manufactories were inſufficient, and many of them, being ſituated on the frontiers, were in the hands of the enemy. They were reproduced, in every quarter, with an activity never witneſſed before. Scientific men were commiſſioned to deſcribe and ſimplify the different proceſſes; the bells of the churches were melted and converted into ordnance. Steel was not to be had; there was no opportunity of obtaining it from foreign countries, and the art of making it was not known. Men of ſcience were requeſted to revive it, and they ſucceeded, and by their efforts this department of public defence became independent of foreign aſſiſtance.

The neceſſities of the war made it evident, in the moſt urgent manner, that an excellent topography was indiſpenſible to our ſucceſs, as we were convinced of the imperfections of the ancient maps. Being better informed by experience, the corps of engineers and geographers, which was ſuppreſſed by the conſtituent aſſembly, was again introduced into the armies, and although at the firſt moment of its formation, it was not poſſible to give all the comprehenſion and exactneſs to its labours which was requiſite, yet it prepared the way for ſubſequent ſucceſſes. Nothing is ſo eaſy as the taſk of deſtroying; nothing ſo difficult, or ſo tardy in the execution, as the reparation of ruins. By a happy inſtance of good policy, the engineers of civil works, and their pupils, were exempted from the general requiſition. Whatever might have been the demand for the defenders of their country, it was eaſily perceived that ten years ſtudy is requiſite to form an engineer, but that health and courage only are ſufficient to make a ſoldier. This diſaſtrous period furniſhes inſtances of prudence and ability, which have not been always imitated in times of greater tranquillity. The ſciences had now rendered important ſervices, but they were the objects of calumny: thoſe who had employed them ſo ſucceſsfully were obliged to undertake their defence, a taſk which they executed with conſcious intrepidity. A circumſtance as unexpected as it was ſingular, contributed further to introduce a wider recourſe to their aſſiſtance. An officer preſented himſelf before the committee of public welfare, and announced that the armies were in ſight of the enemy, but that it was found dangerous to ſend the troops into the field, becauſe the brandy and ſpirits allotted for the ſoldiers were ſaid to be poiſoned, ſome patients in the hoſpital having died in conſequence of drinking of them. He requeſted the committee to examine into the nature of the circumſtance, and, having received his orders on this head, he took his leave without delay. The ableſt chemiſts in Paris were immediately ſummoned; they were ordered to analyſe the ſpirits, and, in the courſe of the day, to diſcover the nature of the poiſon, and its antidote. Such was the employment of thoſe men of ſcience, who proceeded ſeparately in their inveſtigations, and relied only on their ſingle efforts; ſcarce had they time enough allowed to

them to complete their operations. When they had accompliſhed their experiments, they were ſummoned to attend the committee of public ſafety, of which the ſanguinary Robeſpierre was then preſident. They declared that the liquors were not poiſoned; that there was only a little water mixed with them, in which were ſome particles of ſlate in ſuſpenſion, and that nothing more was requiſite than filtration to diveſt them of every pernicious property. Robeſpierre, who expected treachery, aſked the commiſſioners, if they were well aſſured of the truth of their ſtatements? One of them made no other reply than by producing a filtring ſtone, and having paſſed the liquor through it, drank it before the aſſembly without any heſitation, in which he was followed by his aſſociates. Robeſpierre demanded of him, in a ſtern tone, how he dared to drink poiſoned liquors? I have dared to do more than that, replied he; I have ſigned my name at the bottom of the report. This ſervice, which conſidered by itſelf is not very important, had however the effect of proclaiming the utility of ſcience, and of learned men, and a greater portion of them were admitted to the committee of public welfare. There they were ſecure from the ſavage attacks of thoſe petty denouncers, who filled every part of France. Having no connection except with the military department of the committee, which was eager to ſhelter them from perſecution, they were at liberty to eſcape from the ſuſpicious eyes of their tyrants, by preſerving an unobtruſive ſilence. Merit and virtue, at that time, had no reſource except in retirement and obſcurity. Oh! ill-fated Lavoiſier, Bailly, and Condorcet, why did not you graſp at this ſolitary method of preſervation! O that you were now united with your few remaining friends, whom a wiſe obſcurity has preſerved from deſtruction, and were enjoying with them the glory of France, of which you were ſuch conſpicuous ornaments! At the period of which we are now ſpeaking, Bailly was no longer in exiſtence. Hir virtues, his talents, his name celebrated through Europe, the noble and courageous manner in which he preſided at the birth of French liberty; in ſhort, every thing which attracts the eſteem and reſpect of mankind were uſeleſs barriers againſt the ferocious rage of his perſecutors. He died, and the detail of his ſufferings, during his laſt moments, is frightful in the extreme.

During this period of ſanguinary perſecution, all the means of defence, iſſued from the obſcure retreat into which the genius of ſcience had fled, gunpowder was the firſt and greateſt neceſſity; the troops had little left, and the arſenals were empty. The board of ordnance was aſſembled to conſider and provide the means of further ſupplies. They declared that the annual produce amounted to three millions of pounds; that they had for their baſis ſaltpetre from the Eaſt Indies; that extraordinary encouragement might raiſe the amount to five millions, and that nothing more could be reaſonably expected. When the members of the committee of public ſafety announced to the adminiſtrators that ſeventeen millions of pounds of ſaltpetre muſt be manufactured in a few months, they were thunderſtruck with amazement, and declared, that if it were poſſible to produce ſo great a quantity, it muſt be accompliſhed by methods to which they were entire ſtrangers. However no other reſource remained. It was uſeleſs to think of having ſupplies from India, becauſe the ſeas were ſhut up. The men of ſcience pledged themſelves to extract the whole quantity from the ſoil of the republic. A general requiſition invited the whole maſs of citizens, without any diſtinction, to engage in this operation. A ſhort and ſimple inſtruction, ſpread abroad with ſurpriſing activity, made what was a difficult art, a ſimple and ordinary proceſs. Every habitation of men and of animals was

ſearched for materials. In the ruins of Lyons, ſaltpetre was collected; and in the burnt foreſts of La Vendee charcoal was found in abundance. Theſe extraordinary exertions would have failed, had not ſcience ſeconded them by further helps. Saltpetre, in its rude ſtate, is not fit to make powder; it is mixed with ſalts and earths, which keep it moiſt, and diminiſh its activity. The proceſs of purifying it would have been very tedious. The conſtruction of powder mills would have required many months, and, in the interim, France would have been ſubdued. Chemiſtry furniſhed new methods for refining and drying ſaltpetre in a few days. Inſtead of powder mills, large barrels were turned round by men, in which the charcoal, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre being pulveriſed, were mingled together with balls of copper. By this method gunpowder was manufactured in twelve hours. In this manner, the bold expreſſion of a member of the committee was verified; we ſhall have the ground converted into ſaltpetre, ſaid he, and, five days afterward, we ſhall charge the cannon with it. Circumſtances at this time were favourable, and concurred to bring to perfection the only arts which were then in inactivity in France. Citizens were ſent to Paris from all the departments, and were inſtructed in the fabrication of arms and of ſaltpetre. A very rapid courſe was haſtily formed, which was then termed the revolutionary lecture. Theſe contributed little to the general movement which ſaved the republic, but they produced an effect not leſs important; they proved the aſtoniſhing facility with which Frenchmen acquire the arts and ſciences: a happy gift of Nature, which forms one of the moſt ſtriking characteriſtics of the nation, and which, by a fortunate concurrence of events, was deſtined afterwards to recover it from barbariſm.

Notwithſtanding the important ſervices derived from ſcience, men of learning were ſtill expoſed to perſecution, and the moſt celebrated were the moſt liable to its attacks. The venerable d'Aubenton eſcaped from proſcription, only becauſe he had compoſed a work on the improvement of ſheep, and was, for that reaſon, conſidered as a ſimple ſhepherd. Couſin, who was leſs fortunate, compoſed works on geometry in his priſon, and gave lectures on natural philoſophy to his companions in misfortune. Lavoiſier was likewiſe put into confinement; he was one of the commiſſion of weights and meaſures, and it was imagined that this little would have claimed the protection of the committee of public ſafety, and have ſet him at liberty. Meaſures were taken for this purpoſe, but it was only betraying ignorance of the ſpirit of the times. A ſhort time after, this illuſtrious man was conducted to the ſcaffold; he would have been now alive, had he addreſſed himſelf to the avarice of his perſecutors, inſtead of appealing to their juſtice and liberality. Even thoſe who were attached to the committee on account of the indiſpenſible neceſſities of the war, eſcaped death by burying themſelves in the obſcurity of their laborious occupations. To ſpeak, or even to think on the affairs of government, was conſidered as conſpiracy, and treated accordingly. What could be expected from men, whom a ſingle word might have led to the ſcaffold? And what injuſtice would it not be to make them reſponſible for meaſures which they were unable to prevent?

During this unhappy period, ſome members of the convention introduced a debate on the ſubject of public inſtruction, and earneſtly requeſted that the organization of the public ſchools ſhould be arranged. The revolutionary faction oppoſed this meaſure, becauſe, in their opinion, ſcience was a ſpecies of poiſon which enervated republics. The public aſſemblies of the departments, and of the popular ſocieties, were, in their eyes, the nobleſt of all ſchools. Some enlight-

ened men held the ſame language, but with a different view. Being more politic than the former faction, they were ſenſible that no good was to be expected from their oppoſition, and that, by an unſeaſonable diſplay of zeal, they might expoſe to imminent danger the few men of learning that France had ſtill left. They accompliſhed, however, in this reſpect, whatever circumſtances allöwed them to execute. A military ſchool was inſtituted, where the youth of all the departments were to be exerciſed and taught the uſe of arms, and the diſcipline of a camp; and this was termed the ſchool of Mars. Its object was not to form officers, but well-inſtructed ſoldiers, who being ſcattered over the armies of France, would make them the moſt enlightened, as they were before the beſt diſciplined in Europe. The ſucceſs of the revolutionary courſe, with reſpect to powder and ſaltpetre, furniſhed the idea of a rapid inſtruction, the advantages of which were ſo juſtly appreciateſi.

There were ſome thoughts of eſtabliſhing, on the ſame plan, a *Normal ſchool*, in which the moſt diſtinguiſhed profeſſors ſhould deliver lectures on the art of inſtruction. In this manner a ſmall number of men, whoſe merit has not been juſtly eſtimated, retarded, by their conſtant and individual efforts, the progreſs of barbariſm, and ſtruggled in a thouſand forms againſt the oppreſſion under which all other deſcriptions of perſons crouched and ſuccumbed. At length, the bloody throne of Robeſpierre was overturned; hope ſucceeded the reign of terror, and victory took the place of defeat. On this occaſion the ſciences iſſuing from the darkneſs of their ſtudies and laboratories, reappeared in all their ſplendor. The ſervices which they had rendered were acknowledged, and the dangers which they had incurred were deplored. It was no longer criminal, ill-fated Condorcet, to inquire into and lament thy unhappy lot. The plans of the campaign, which were projected in the committee of public welfare, were crowned with ſucceſs. The French armies had advanced on the rear of the enemy, and, threatening their retreat, forced them precipitately to abandon the ſtrong holds which they had conquered: they marched from victory to victory into the territories of the enemy. The arts and ſciences, revived by liberty, employed a new activity in preparing victories abroad, and repairing evils at home. Every thing that genius, labour and induſtry, could accompliſh, was employed in enabling France to make head againſt all Europe, and ſubſiſt by her own reſources during the war, ſhould it prove eternal and tremendous. In the beginning of the third year of the republic, the reſult of the general application of ſcientific labour was as follows:—The means of manufacturing iron, ſteel, and ſaltpetre, and likewiſe powder and fire arms, were diſcovered, and put into execution during the reign of terror. Twelve million pounds of ſaltpetre were extracted from the ſoil of France in the ſpace of nine months. Under the old government the produce did not amount to one million per annum. Fifteen founderies were employed in caſting braſs cannon, the annual produce of which was ſeven thouſand pieces of ordnance. Only two eſtabliſhments of this kind exiſted in France before the revolution. Thirty founderies were employed in caſting iron cannon, which produced thirteen thouſand per annum. At the commencement of the war, there were only four, which annually produced nine hundred pieces of cannon. The fabrication of mortars and gun-carriages was multiplied in the ſame proportion. Twenty new manufactories of white arms were erected, and carried on by new proceſſes, of which deſcription there was only one before the war. An immenſe manufactory of fire-arms was on a ſudden put forward at Paris, which produced annually 140,000 muſkets; that is, more than all the old manufactories

together. Many ſimilar eſtabliſhments were inſtituted in the different departments of the republic. One hundred and eighty-eight armories, for repairing all ſorts of arms, were erected, of which kind there were only ſix before the revolution. Likewiſe a manufactory of carbines, which were never before that time made in France. The art of repairing the touch-holes of cannon was invented, and carried to ſuch perfection as to be performed in the fields. A method was diſcovered of extracting from the pine-tree pitch and tar for the uſe of the navy. The balloon and telegraph were converted into inſtruments of war. A ſimplification of the art of war, grounded on the moſt accurate theory, was carried into execution. A ſecret eſtabliſhment was formed at Meudon for this purpoſe, where experiments were made on powder of muriate, ſuroxygenated potaſh, on fire-balls, bomb-ſhells, &c. Means were employed to extracting, from the ſoil of France, every thing neceſſary for the conſtruction and equipment of ſhips of war. Many attempts were made to replace or reproduce the materials which were waſted by the war; to multiply the potaſh and alkali which gunpowder withdrew from manufactures. A clear and ingenious method was put into general uſe of making ſoap for the accommodation of the citizens; and likewiſe the invention of paſte for crayons, which was formerly imported from England. Another invention of ineſtimable value was brought to light, which is a method of tanning leather in a few days, which required uſually, before this diſcovery, ſeveral years of preparation.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

LINES preſented to a YOUNG FRIEND, who had reproached the Author with not feeling the ſame degree of Affection as formerly, becauſe ſhe had omitted embracing her at Meeting.

AS well my love, might you ſuppoſe,
The ſun's enliv'ning pow'r
Could blaſt the tender bud that blows,
And blight the op'ning flow'r;

As e'er ſuppoſe thy pleaſing ſight
Did not expand my breaſt,
Make ev'ry care ſit ſoft and light,
And lull each grief to reſt.

As well might you ſuppoſe the dew
Poſſeſs'd no nurt'ring charm,
As e'er believe the ſight of you
Each feeling did not warm!

As well, Louiſa, might you ſay,
The ſilver queen of night
Could not illumine by its rays,
Becauſe 'twas borrow'd light.

From you, I borrow ev'ry bliſs
That this world can beſtow,
And though I did forget the kiſs,
This heart, I'm ſure, you know!

Still I'm your debtor, I allow,
And readily will pay,
So take the kiſs, dear girl, juſt now,
Or when you go away.

EXTEMPORE LINES written to a FRIEND, upon hearing that a TITLE was affixed to her Name.

THE humbl'ſt wooer of the Nine,
Offers congratulation;
And *bows* before my lady's ſhrine,
Knowing her diſtant ſtation!

Yet ſtill ſhe feels herſelf acquire
A kind of luſtrous ray;
And really is, ſome inches higher
Than ſhe was yeſterday!

Does not the ſilver queen of night,
A borrow'd radiance ſhow?
And may I not hope, my lady's light
Will give her friend a glow?

Friend! did I ſay? Forgive the word;
Can ladies friendſhip feel?
Ah, no! for I have often heard
Their hearts are made of ſteel.

But well I know that Charlotte's heart
To friendſhip is inclin'd,
And well I know, a Title's art
Can't change thy lib'ral mind!

The name of friend I'll therefore claim,
And moſt ſincerely ſay,
I hope the preſent lambent flame,
Preludes—a brighter ray.

ODE for his MAJESTY's BIRTH DAY.

By H. J. PYE, Eſq. Poet Laureat.

BRITAIN, alas! has woo'd in vain,
Reluctant Peace, the placid charms;
Compell'd, the treads once more th' enſanguin'd plain,
Where fame, where Freedom, call aloud for arms.
Yet be awhile the battle's ſound
In notes of feſtive triumph drown'd:
Whether the fiends of Diſcord fly
Portentous through the fiery ſky,
Or, bound in Fate's coercive chain,
Howl 'mid th' infernal feats in vain,
On this auſpicious day the Muſe,
Jocund, with grateful voice, her wonted theme purſues.

Amid the boaſt of tyrant pride,
The pomp of ſtate, the arm'd array,
Can all the ſhouts of ſlavery hide
That ſlaves unwilling homage pay?
No force can ſhield Ambition's head
From noon tide care, from midnight dread,
When the ſtill monitor within
Searches th' abode of blood and ſin:
While he who rules with virtuous ſway,
Whom freemen glory to obey,
Sees every breaſt the bulwark of a throne,
His people's ſureſt guard, its ſacred rights their own.

Then let the Muſe, with duteous band,
Strike the bold lyre's reſponſive ſtrings,
While every tongue through Albion's land
Joins in the hymn of praiſe ſhe ſings;
And Labour, from the furrow'd plain,
And Commerce, from the billowy main,
With voice ſymphonious bid ariſe
That pureſt incenſe to the ſkies,
Above the proudeſt wreath of fame,
Which ever grac'd the victor's name,
A nation's votive breath by truth conſign'd
To bleſs a patriot King—the friend of human kind!

The TRIUMPHS of BENEVOLENCE, or, The Succeſs of the VACCINE INOCULATION.

[From Poems, on Moral and Religious Subjects. By A. Flowerdew.]

O'ER Britain's realms a plague long fiercely rag'd,
Nor time, nor ſkill, nor med'cine, had aſſuag'd;
Where'er its dread contagious courſe it ſped,
Th' affrighted people from their houſes fled;
The ſufferers without a friend were left,
Of ev'ry ſoothing tenderneſs bereft:
In mournful language, ancient records tell
What millions 'neath the dire diſtemper fell!
How villages and towns deſerted were,
And life a ſcene of one continu'd fear!
Then Montague *, whoſe name will ever ſtand
High in the annals of a grateful land,
From foreign climes relief her country brought,
On her own ſon perform'd the art ſhe taught;
Yet prejudice, deep rooted, long withſtood
The private intereſt—the public good,
Till years its great utility diſplay'd,
And thouſands bleſs'd its kind and ſoft'ning aid.
But ſome e'en here the wretched victims fell,
Nor anxious parents could their fears diſpel:
All now are vaniſh'd; ſee! contagion flies—
No Smallpox more ſhall cloſe the ſparkling eyes:
Beauty no more ſhall mourn its tranſient date:
The feeling mind, with grateful joy elate,
To Jenner looks, whoſe philanthrophic zeal
Bent to one ardent point, his country's weal,
O'er ev'ry obſtacle purſues his way,
And makes falſe notions bend to reaſon's ſway;
By long experience proves his vaccine plan
Replete with ſalutary aid to man.
Fear not, ye cautious, here's a pow'r divine,
Jenner but executes heav'n's vaſt deſign!
Behold your pitying Father's healing hand,
In this mild ſyſtem, to a ſuff'ring land—
Let prejudice be baniſh'd from your mind;
Embrace with joy this bleſſing to mankind!
See—its great fame extends to diſtant lands,
While England's king the pow'rful patron ſtands!
Bleſt with his monarch's praiſe, his country's love,
Jenner deſerved happineſs ſhall prove:
No thouſands ſlain, no dreadful victories won,
Shall gild his calm, his gently ſetting, ſun;
Millions he ſav'd—far ſweeter joys convey,
With luſtre bright ſhall cloſe his peaceful day;

* It is well known that the celebrated lady Wortley Montague firſt introduced inoculation for the ſmallpox into Great Britain.

Nor in the grave ſhall he neglected lie,
Rever'd, belov'd, his mem'ry cannot die!
When future ages ſhall high trophies raiſe
To thoſe who beſt deſerv'd their country's praiſe,
And worth departed—claims the tribute juſt,
To Jenner, then, ſhall riſe the honour'd buſt;
On its broad baſe ſhall ſhow the wond'ring throng
The dreadful ſcourge that nations bore ſo long:
Here mothers, ſhudd'ring, ſhall the horrors view
Which, from this dread diſeaſe, their parents knew;
With tearful eyes—with grateful love impreſt,
Shall claſp their beauteous offspring to their breaſt,
With ſweet emotions feel their boſoms glow,
That no ſuch ſorrows they are doom'd to know;
Then round his ſhrine weave the ne'erfading bays,
And to his mem'ry pour—immortal lays!

THOUGHTS ON DEATH.

Written at an early period of Life.

[By the SAME.]

THOU great Supreme! thou ſource of light divine!
Thou who haſt form'd me for eternal life!
O draw my mind from every vain purſuit,
And lead my thoughts to that approaching hour
When nature's feeble pow'rs ſhall all give way!
Then ſhall the world, its pleaſures, and its cares,
Loſe all their hold, and, ſhrinking back from view,
Will leave the immortal mind to dwell on
Heavenly themes, and all the boundleſs ſcenes
Of vaſt eternity! the feeble clay
No longer able to confine her gueſt,
Shall drop, and ſleep in death, till that dread hour
When the archangel's voice ſhall ſhake the earth,
And all the dead in ſolemn pomp draw near!
Who now ſhall tell the glories of that ſtate
To which the followers of the Lamb ſhall riſe?
No mortal eye hath ſeen, nor ear hath heard,
Nor glowing heart conceiv'd, the boundleſs joys,
The ceaſeleſs pleaſures, that ſurround his throne,
From whom ſprings ev'ry good and perfect bliſs.
Heaven! 'tis a world of endleſs glory,
Where his continu'd preſence ever dwells!
This is the happy ſtate I long to reach,
Where not an intervening cloud can riſe,
For I ſhall dwell for ever with my God.
O may I here begin this heav'n below,
And all my brighteſt hours be ſpent in praiſe.
In youth, or age, ah! let me ſtand prepar'd
Calmly to meet my ſolemn, laſt, exchange:
Then, when thou call'ſt, without one ſtruggling ſigh,
To thee, who gave, would I reſign my breath,
And fearleſs enter where my Saviour paſs'd.
O'er the dark valley he a light has ſhed
That cheers and well ſupports the fainting mind—
For, lo! the gates of bliſs he opens wide,
And welcomes ev'ry faithful follower home!

DESCRIPTION of the ABBEY of LA TRAPPE.

[From 'Narrative Poems,' by I. D'Iſraeli.]

'TWAS where La Trappe had raiſed its ſavage ſeat,
Of grief and piety the laſt retreat,
And dark the rocks, and dark the foreſt lay,
And ſhrill the wind blew o'er the abbey grey,
Houſe of remorſe, of penitence and care,
Its inmate grief, its architect deſpair.
The ſhepherd from the ſtony paſture flies.
No muſic warbles in thoſe ſilent ſkies;
Where in the wilderneſs the cypreſs waves,
The pale eyed votaries hover round their graves;
Silence and ſolitude perpetual reign
Around this hermit-family of pain!
Mark the dread portal!—who without a tear
Forgets the murmuring earth to enter here?
As the deep ſolitude more ſternly grows,
With ſocial tenderneſs the pilgrim glows;
And, while he reads the awful lines above,
Turns to his native vale and native love.
'Lo Death, the pale inſtructor! guards this porch,
And Truth celeſtial waves her mighty torch!
Far from the world's deceiving path we fly,
To find a paſſage to Eternity!'

TRIAL *of* ROBERT ASLETT, *late one of the Caſhiers of the Bank of England, for* EMBEZZLING *of* EXCHEQUER BILLS.

ON Friday, July 9, Robert Aſlett was brought up to the bar, at the ſeſſion-houſe in the Old Bailey, and arraigned upon ten indictments, charging him with embezzling, ſecreting, and running away with certain Exchequer Bills, of the value of 1000l. each, the property of the governor and company of the Bank of England.

The clerk of the arraigns read over the firſt indictment, in which he was charged with embezzling at the pariſh of Saint Chriſtopher le Stocks, three exchequer bills of certain numbers, the property of the governor and company of the Bank of England. The counts of the indictment ſtated the bills to be certain effects and ſecurities of the ſaid governor and company, which the priſoner at the bar had ſecreted, embezzled and run away with. To this indictment the priſoner pleaded not guilty.

When the jury were called over, ſeveral of them were challenged by Mr. Serjeant Beſt, of counſel for the priſoner. At length, however, a jury was ſworn.

Mr. Garrow ſtated the caſe on the part of the proſecution. He ſaid, he addreſſed the jury in conſequence of inſtructions which he had received from the governor and company of the Bank of England, and he ſhould deem it neceſſary, in the courſe of his addreſs, to ſtate the reaſon why this trial, which had ſtood appointed on a former day, was poſtponed; and in ſtating thoſe reaſons, he was convinced he ſhould, for the conduct of thoſe engaged in the proſecution, experience not only ſatisfaction, but the approbation of the court. The caſe which he had to preſent to their attention, and which he ſhould make out againſt the priſoner, was of the laſt importance, not only to the public, but as it affected the life of the priſoner, and ſecurity and intereſts of the important corporation who had brought the proſecution forward. By a late act of parliament it had been made a capital offence for any perſon in an official ſituation under that corporation to ſecrete or embezzle any property entruſted to his care. The governor and company were, in many inſtances, truſtees to the public. It would be neceſſary for him to ſtate the manner in which the buſineſs at the bank is tranſacted. The priſoner came into the employ of the governor and company about 25 years ſince, and about two years ſince he had been appointed to act under Mr. Newland, the chief caſhier. It would not be unimportant to ſay that to that time he had conducted himſelf faithfully and meritoriouſly, and until he had been induced unfortunately to ſpeculate in the funds, and in dereliction to that duty and fidelity which he owed to his employers, had ſubtracted immenſe ſums from the property entruſted to his care In the year 1799, having gone through the neceſſary and regular gradations, he was appointed one of the caſhiers. It was a part of the buſineſs of the Bank to purchaſe exchequer bills, to ſupply the exigencies of government; the purchaſes were entruſted to the care of a very meritorious and excellent officer (Mr. A. Newland), but on account of that gentleman's growing infirmities, having been 53 years in the ſervices of the Bank, the management was left wholly under the care and direction of the priſoner. Theſe purchaſes were made of Mr. Goldſmid, by the means of Mr. Templeman, the broker. It was uſual to make out a bill in the name of the perſon from whom they were purchaſed, which was delivered to the priſoner, to examine and enter them in what was called the bought book, and then give orders to the caſhiers to reimburſe the broker. The bills were afterward depoſited in a ſtrong cheſt, kept in Mr. Newland's room, and when they had encreaſed in bulk by ſubſequent purchaſes, they were ſelected by the priſoner, tied up in large bundles, and carried to the parlour, that is to ſay, the room in which the directors held their meetings, accompanied by one of the clerks with the original book of entry, when the directors in waiting received the envelope, and depoſited them in the ſtrong iron cheſt, which had three keys, and to which none but the directors had acceſs; nor could they be brought forth until the courſe of payment, unleſs by conſent of at leaſt two of the directors. Therefore it was not poſſible for them to find their way into the hands of the public or the monied market, unleſs by ſuch contrivance as he had ſtated. On the 25th February laſt, the priſoner, according to the practice, made up three envelopes of exchequer bills, of 1000l. each bill: the firſt containing bills to the amount of 100,000l.; the ſecond 200,000l.; and the third 400,000l.; making in the whole 700,000l.; theſe were, or in fact ought to have been, car-

ried into the parlour, and were ſigned as being received by two of the directors, Meſſrs. Paget, and Smith; one of theſe bundles, namely, that containing the 200,000l. worth of bills, was withdrawn. The charge he had to make againſt the priſoner was, that he withdrew that parcel, embezzled and turned it to his own uſe. This he ſhould moſt clearly demonſtrate to the ſatisfaction of the jury. The confidence which the governor and company placed in the priſoner had enabled him to conceal the tranſaction from the 26th of February to the 9th of April; and it was next to an impoſſibility that it ſhould be diſcovered, as no period of payment had arrived; but on that day, in conſequence of an application made by Mr. Biſh, the whole was diſcovered.—On the 26th of March, the priſoner went to that gentleman, and requeſted he would purchaſe for him 50,000l. conſols, to which requeſt no objection was made, provided he depoſited the requiſite ſecurities. The fluctuation of the market at that time was 6 per cent, and the priſoner, in order to cover any deficit, depoſited with Mr. Biſh three exchequer bills, the ſubject of the preſent indictment, Nos. 341, 1060, 2694, and which he knew had been previouſly depoſited in the Bank. From ſome circumſtances, and from his general knowledge of the whole of the buſineſs of the funds, Mr. Biſh ſuſpected all was not right, and accordingly went to the Bank, where an inveſtigation took place, at which Mr. B. Watſon, one of the directors, was preſent. Mr. Newland was ſent for, and aſked whether any of the exchequer bills could, by poſſibility, get into the market again from the bank? To which he anſwered in the negative, obſerving they were a dormant ſecurity. The ſame queſtion was put to the priſoner, and the ſame anſwer given by him. It was found neceſſary to tell him that the bills in queſtion, which could be proved to have been in the Bank, had found their way into the monied market, and at the ſame time it was obſerved, that he (the priſoner) had made purchaſes, to a large amount, of ſtock, with the bills; this was acknowledged by him; but he ſaid he had done ſo for a friend named Hoſier, reſiding at the weſt-end of the town, and he declared they were not Bank property, nor to be found in the bought book. The directors, however, were not ſatisfied on this point, and he was immediately ſecured. Mr. Garrow here remarked upon the dangerous tendency to ſociety of ſuch practices, even in a private merchant's houſe, and obſerved, that the preſent caſe was of the utmoſt conſequence, involving an embezzlement of property to the amount of 200,000l. from a large corporate body. It would be impoſſible for common charity to find an excuſe for the priſoner's guilt. He ſhould prove that many of the bills ſo embezzled had been depoſited with certain gentlemen, whom he named; and that after the priſoner was in cuſtody, his deſk was broke open, and an envelope containing bills to the amount of ſixteen thouſand pounds, taken from thence, which bills were the property of the Bank of England. Theſe were the charges which he had to bring againſt the priſoner, and which he ſhould prove to the full extent. (Mr. Garrow here made ſome alluſions to the conduct of certain prints, reſpecting the delay in bringing the priſoner to trial, which it would be an uſeleſs and needleſs waſte of time to repeat.) He then ſtated the reaſon for putting off the trial. It had occurred, he obſerved, to thoſe employed in the proſecution, that the bills in queſtion had been iſſued with an informality in them, not having the ſignature of the auditor of the exchequer. They were aware of the objections that might be taken, and parliament not then being ſitting, it was thought adviſeable to poſtpone the trial, leſt it might create an alarm in the money market. The fact was no ſooner known, than a bill was brought into parliament for remedying thoſe defects, and to render the bills valid. This, he truſted, would be a ſufficient excuſe for the delay. He was aware that difficulties might be ſtarted by the priſoner's counſel, with reſpect to the manner in which theſe bills were afterward ſigned. He ſhould be prepared to anſwer the arguments which might be adduced, provided their lordſhips were of opinion the objection required to be anſwered. The jury were bound, if the caſe was made out, to find the priſoner guilty.

The counſel for the proſecution were about to call Mr. Beſt, the ſecretary to the Bank, to give evidence, when

Mr. Erſkine roſe, and ſubmitted to their lordſhips that the indictment could not be ſuſtained. It charged the priſoner of having committed larceny, by ſecreting and embezzling certain exchequer bills. It was only neceſſary to prove what he had ſubmitted, to inquire one plain fact, whether the bills which the priſoner ſtood charged with having ſtolen were really and *bona fide* exchequer bills, that is to ſay, good for the purpoſes for which they were intended at the time they were ſecreted. To

prove they were not, he need but refer their lordſhips to the act which had been alluded to by Mr. Garrow. It was found expedient by the wiſdom of the legiſlature, to paſs that act, in order to render the bills, or what might be more properly denominated pieces of paper, valid and good for the purpoſes for which they were intended. They were either good bills before the paſſing of this act, or they were nothing. It was evident that the legiſlature conſidered them as not good and valid, in conſequence of their not being ſigned by the auditory of the exchequer, or ſome one named by him, or the act would not have paſſed. If this propoſition was conceded to him by the court, the priſoner muſt be acquitted. Mr. Erſkine paid ſome compliments to the conduct of the governor and company of the Bank of England, for the able manner in which they had brought forward the caſe, and obſerved, that the public was much indebted to them.

Mr. Garrow admitted, that for the purpoſe of the proſecution, the court muſt be diſtinctly ſatisfied the bills were exchequer bills. He contended they might be ſo taken in a criminal caſe, though, he acknowledged, for civil purpoſes they could not be uſed. He cited the caſe of a perſon charged with forging a bill of exchange for 10l. for which he was found guilty. It was objected to the verdict, that the note on which the bill was drawn was not ſtamped with a proper ſtamp, and that therefore the perſon ought to have been acquitted. This point was ſolemnly argued before the twelve judges, who decided, that for criminal purpoſes the bill muſt be taken as a bill of exchange; ſo, in the preſent caſe, the priſoner had paſſed theſe bills as bills of exchange, and conſequently was amenable in a criminal court.

Mr. Erſkine contended for the poſition which he had laid down, and was proceeding to refer to the caſe of Colin Reculeſt as not being one in point, when

The chief baron Macdonald obſerved, that the judges gave their deciſion in that caſe on the very converſe of the propoſition contained for; that was an indictment for forgery. In the preſent caſe, the charge was for embezzling a valid bill of exchange. However great the crime in ſociety, and the magnitude of the ſum embezzled, though every one of us regret the cauſe of it, and the effect upon ſociety, yet it was the bounden duty of the court to determine according to the regular, ordinary, and conſtant courſe of the adminiſtration of juſtice. It was certainly clear the preſent indictment was not to be maintained, as the charge therein alledged could not be proved. The act of parliament had recognized the invalidity of the bills which the priſoner embezzled

Mr. Juſtice Rooke was of the ſame opinion.

Mr. Juſtice Lawrence concurred with the other learned judges, and noticed the caſe of the forged bill of exchange; the indictment in that caſe charged the priſoner with making a falſe and counterfeit inſtrument, purporting to be a bill of exchange; the diſtinction would be therefore evident.

The lord chief baron then directed the jury to acquit the priſoner. He was accordingly found Not Guilty.

He was afterward acquitted on the other indictments, the evidence being the ſame.

Mr. Garrow applied to the court to detain him in cuſtody, it being the intention of the Bank directors to iſſue a civil proceſs againſt him for 100,000l. and upward, the monies paid for the bills which he had converted to his own uſe.

Mr. Kirby at firſt heſitated to receive the priſoner, underſtanding he was acquitted, but it was peremptorily deſired by the court to take him back.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

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HOUSE OF LORDS.

Monday, June 20.

On the order of the day being read for taking into conſideration his majeſty's meſſage relative to the additional means to be adopted for the defence of the country—

Lord HOBART ſaid, that in riſing to move the addreſs of thanks for his majeſty's communication, he could not but anticipate an unanimous vote of concurrence. To whatever remarks the particular details of the meaſure in contemplation might be ſubject when it ſhould regularly come under conſideration, he could not conceive that any noble lord would object to a general aſſurance of complying with the views ſuggeſted in his majeſty's meſſage. It was intended to raiſe, by way of ballot, an additional force of 40,000 men in England, and 10,000 in Ireland. Adverting to the advantage of providing the means

of encreaſing the diſpoſeable force of the country, he ſaid it was not the intention of government to introduce, in the bill for raiſing the force, the clauſe uſual in militia bills for precluding the men from enliſting into the regulars. After entering into ſeveral other particulars, his lordſhip moved an addreſs, which was, as uſual, an echo of the meſſage.

The queſtion for the addreſs was carried, *nem. diſſ.*

Wedneſday, June, 22.

On the queſtion for bringing up the report of the Clergy Reſidence Bill,

Lord GRENVILLE objected to its principal proviſions; the effect of which, he contended, would be to legalize their non-reſidence. He particularly lamented that it contained no proviſion for increaſing the ſtipends of the poorer livings; and, alluding to a plan which he ſtated himſelf ſome ſeſſions back to have had in contemplation, he ſaid that the fund which he could have appropriated to that purpoſe, would have the advantage accruing to the nation from the ſale of the land-tax, and which would not fall much ſhort of 200,000l. a year.

The Lord CHANCELLOR repeated the arguments in ſupport of the bill, which he had uſed in its preceding ſtages.

The report was then received, and the various amendments made in the committee were agreed to.

Thurſday, June 23.

The Militia Tranſfer Bill, and the New Cuſtoms Bill, were read a third time, paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

Friday, June 24.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to forty ſeven public and private bills. Among the former were the Militia Tranſfer Bill, and twelve millions Loan Bill.

The Clergy Reſidence Bill, was read a third time, and after ſome diſcuſſion on the general principle, paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

Wedneſday, June 29.

The Iriſh Benefice Bill, Iriſh Ship Protection Bill. Iriſh Corn Bill, Iriſh Militia Tranſfer Bill, and Iriſh Indemnity Bill, were read a third time, and ordered to the commons.

Thurſday, June 30.

The Exciſe Duty Bill, Exciſe Duty Equalization Bill, and Militia Officers Augmentation Bill, were read a third time, and ordered to be committed.

Monday, July 4.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to a great number of public and private bills. Among the former were the additional Cuſtom Duty Bill, Highland Road and Bridge Bill, Exciſe Duty Bill, Militia Officers Bill, and Election Bribery Bill.

Tueſday, July 5.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Exciſe Duties Bill and two private bills.

The Engliſh Army of Reſerve Bill was read a third time. Several amendments, chiefly verbal, were adopted, on the motion of lord Hobart. The bill was then paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

The Scotch Army of Reſerve Bill was committed, reported, read a third time, paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

Wedneſday, July 6.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Engliſh Army of Reſerve Bill, the Scotch Army of Reſerve Bill, and a private bill.

On the queſtion being put for the third reading of the Clergy Reſidence Bill, lord Suffolk ſtated ſeveral objections, after which the bill was read a third time, paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

Thurſday, July 7.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Clergy Reſidence Bill, Foote's Divorce Bill, and two private bills.

The Iriſh Promiſſory Note Bill, Iriſh Workmen Combination Bill, Southern Whale Fiſhery Bill, and Iriſh Militia Pay Bill, were read a third time and paſſed.

Monday, July 11.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Iriſh Army of Reſerve Bill, Iriſh Workmen Combination Bill, Iriſh Small Note Bill, Scotch Militia Families Bill, Southern Whale Fiſhery Bill, and ſome private bills.

Tueſday, July 12.

A meſſage relative to the grant made to the late lord Amherſt, was delivered by lord Pelham, in nearly the ſame words as yeſterday delivered to the commons by lord Caſtlereagh. On the motion of lord Pelham, an addreſs of thanks was ordered to be preſented by the lords with the white ſtaves, for this communication.

Wedneſday, July 13.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Iriſh Import and Export Duty Bills, the Exchequer Bills Loan Bill, Militia Adjutants and Serjeants Allowance Bill, and Militia Pay Bill.

The London Port Bill was read a third time, paſſed, and ordered to the commons.

Friday, July 15.

On the queſtion being put for the third reading of the Clergy Proviſion Bill.

Lord SUFFOLK repeated more at large the various objections which he had urged againſt the bill in a former ſtage. The principal proviſion which it contained, that for authoriſing teſtamentary donations in favour of the clergy, he regarded as trenching, in a very alarming degree, on the ſtatute of Mortmain; while, though injurious to the public in its ultimate effects, it would be found of too ſlow an operation to adminiſter ſubſtantial relief to the preſent race of poor incumbents. Inſtead of this meaſure, he would propoſe, in the firſt inſtance, to double the firſt fruits and tenths, which would produce a ſum of 30,000l. a year. If this ſum ſhould produce inadequate to the encreaſe of ſmaller livings to 100l a year, he would exact a real firſt fruit and tenth, which the crown, he would contend, was entitled to levy, as ſucceeding to all the rights of the pope, in his character of head of the church. By this plan there would, at once, be obtained a fund yielding not leſs than 150 000l. a year; and to this reſource he would, if neceſſary, add a tax of two per cent. on all livings of between 300l. and 800l.; of four or five per cent. on all above that amount, and one third of the produce of all vacant deaneries, and other livings connected with chapters. His lordſhip expatiated on the miſchiefs which had occurred in France from diſregarding the claims of the inferior clergy, and on the injurious effects of levying tythes in kind in many parts of the kingdom, and particularly in Ireland.

The biſhop of ST. ASAPH contended, that the ſtatute of Mortmain was no farther trenched upon than in adding one exception to the many which already exiſted in favour of univerſities, colleges, and ſeveral other eſtabliſhments.

The Lord CHANCELLOR ſaid, that the preſent bill really did no more than give complete legal effect to queen Anne's bounty act. He depreciated the alluſions which had ſo repeatedly been made with reſpect to tythes, and contended that the clergy had as complete a right to them as any other deſcription of men had to their eſtates.

After ſome farther obſervations from lord Suffolk, the biſhop of St. Aſaph, and lord Limerick, the bill was read a third time and paſſed.

Friday, July 22.

The Caledonian Canal Bill was read a third time and paſſed.

Saturday, July 23.

The SECRETARY at WAR brought up from the commons the General Defence Bill, which was immediately read a firſt time.

The Woollen Manufacture Acts Suſpenſion Bill, Church and Chapel Endowment Bill, Militia Acts Amendment Bill, and Iriſh Treaſury Bills Bill, were read a third time, and paſſed.

On the motion of Lord HOBART, the ſtanding orders Nos. 26 and 155, were ſuſpended during the progreſs of the General Defence Bill. The bill was then read a ſecond time, and, after a few obſervations from the Duke of Cumberland and the Duke of Norfolk, ordered to be printed, and committed on Monday.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Monday, June 20.

The Twelve Million Loan Bill was read a third time, and paſſed.

The SECRETARY at WAR moved the order of the day for the houſe to reſolve itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to take into conſideration his majeſty's moſt gracious meſſage of Saturday laſt. The committee was accordingly gone into —Col. Stanley in the chair.

The Secretary at War ſtated, that in riſing to call the attention of the committee to his majeſty's meſſage, he had two great points in view—in the firſt inſtance, they were for providing an efficient and powerful defence of the empire; and, adly, for ſetting at liberty a large diſpoſeable force, conſiſting of the regular army.

It was propoſed that a large force, in addition to the preſent eſtabliſhment of the army, ſhould be inſtantly levied by ballot, 40,000 men by Great Britain, and 10,000 by Ireland, as a body of reſerve, in order to protect places on the coaſt, and elſewhere as may be neceſſary. In bringing forward this propoſition three things muſt be attended to; the firſt was to raiſe the men as ſoon as poſſible; ſecondly, that the ſervices of theſe men be extended all over the empire, and to the iſlands in the channel; and thirdly, that in raiſing them the moſt lenient means ſhould be uſed. It was propoſed that the levy ſhould include all, from the age of eighteen to forty-five years, with certain exemptions. He was convinced, that if the meaſure was carried into effect, the war would be conducted with ſucceſs and glory to Britain. It would alſo tend much to abridge the conteſt, and ſhow the governor of France, that this country was not diſmayed; on the con-

trary, that we defied his attacks. The hon. gentleman concluded with moving firſt an addreſs to his majeſty, thanking him for his gracious meſſage, &c. And, ſecondly, that the chairman be inſtructed to move the houſe, for leave to bring in a bill or bills, for raiſing an additional force for the defence of the United Kingdom.

After ſome diſcuſſion, in which a few members ſpoke, the motions were ſeverally agreed to.

Wedneſday, June 22.

The SECRETARY at WAR brought up a bill enabling his majeſty to raiſe an additional force for the better defence and ſecurity of the United Kingdom, and for the more vigorous proſecution of the war.—Read a firſt, and ordered to be read a ſecond time.

Thurſday, June 23.

The SECRETARY at WAR moved the order of the day, for the ſecond reading of the Army of Reſerve bill. He expreſſed a hope that the bill would be allowed to be read a ſecond time at preſent: it ſhould then be committed and printed, and taken into conſideration on a future day.

Mr. PITT roſe. He felt diſpoſed to give his hearty aſſent to the bill, not only as a meaſure which would furniſh the country with her firſt want, a prompt and defenſive army, but which would induce her to hope that ſhe ſoon might have within her reach a large diſpoſeable force, by which ſhe might avail herſelf of any opening on the continent to ſtrike a great and deciſive blow againſt an aſſailing enemy. He wiſhed to ſee the preſumption of the enemy chaſtiſed, the ſpirit that prompts that preſumption humbled, and the efforts and attacks of that ſpirit cruſhed and baffled. But this country had to judge of her power, her means, and capacity, by the experience of former years. That experience held out no diſcouraging hopes to her energy; it held out nothing to diſmay her in the perilous conflict in which, by the wild and miſtaken policy of France, ſhe was engaged. If the preſent was to be a defenſive war on the part of this country, and that was thought too humble a ſtate of warfare for England, it would be recollected that we were engaged with a power who had humbled Europe, and laid her moſt potent States at her feet. Even ſuppoſe a defenſive war was too narrow a ſpecies of warfare for Great Britain to wage, ſhe would bear in mind what he had juſt ſaid, and would not ſuffer her to be enrolled in the melancholy catalogue of thoſe powers proſtrate at the feet of France, overwhelmed by her alliance. He would ſay, at the preſent moment, let this country make a glorious and a ſtrenuous effort. He would make ſuch an effort at the hazard of not being able to make an offenſive attempt againſt the power of France once more. The firſt object this country has in view is to be ſafe; the next, to be ſtrong, powerful, and mighty; and if the bill at preſent before the houſe laid the foundation for theſe, and actually paved the way for having a large, well-diſciplined, diſpoſeable force, commenſurate and adequate to any emergency, from whatever quarter it may ariſe, he would aſk what more could poſſibly be wanting, except the converſion of that force to the uſeful and appropriate purpoſes for which it was deſigned? When the militia was firſt eſtabliſhed, the duke of Marlborough had carried the glory, the fame, and the honour of the Britiſh name to the higheſt pitch they had ever, he believed, attained; and yet the houſe had been told that a militia and a regular army were totally incompatible and inconſiſtent with each other. If a militia of 30,000 men was a large and ſtrong force forty years ago, he begged gentlemen to recollect that at preſent the country required a much greater number of militia, a much greater number of regulars, a higher eſtabliſhment of every deſcription, becauſe the danger of invaſion, and the peril to be apprehended from the enemy, were much more imminent, more notorious, and conſpicuous, than they had ever been; and that the nature of any war this country could carry on abroad could not be ſo important, intereſting, or commanding, as that of a defenſive war, which, in all likelihood, ſhe will have to wage at home on her own ſhores. He thought that if even the defenſive force of the country was trebled on the preſent occaſion, there would be nothing wild in the idea: on the contrary, that it would be highly prudent, beneficial, and conducive to the ſafety, the honour, and the conſervation of the empire; becauſe there was no ſimilarity whatever between the preſent and former conteſt in which Great Britain and France had been engaged. He would ſpeak frankly and fairly, and declare his opinion, that a force large and efficient for general ſervices, in the preſent circumſtances of the country, was not eaſily to be obtained. Certainly, troops of this deſcription gained a deal of experience in foreign ſervice, and officers and ſoldiers alike partake in the glories and perils of their ſituations. This gave them a readineſs which no ſchool could incul-

cate, and which nothing could inſtil but practice, but which once attained, nothing could eradicate or obliterate. Such a force would be better, if poſſible, for defence than offence. Still, however, he ſhould be compelled to qualify this, becauſe we ſhall, in all probability, have to oppoſe front to front in the courſe of the preſent ſummer. If the men about to be raiſed were to be balloted for general ſervice, would any man believe that they would not be better for the ſummer campaign they might have? It was deluſion itſelf to ſay they would not, or to apply general doctrines to a ſubject which admitted only of one ſolution. If we could prevail on Bonaparte not to attack us until we had ſent an army abroad to be inured to hardſhip, peril, and fatigue, no doubt could then exiſt that they would then be every way qualified to meet the choſen troops of France. He ſubmitted that the preſent mode of defence held out by far a much better chance of obtaining an army for general and effective ſervice, by permitting the men to enliſt into regiments of the line, becauſe the ground-work of which the ſuperſtructure would be raiſed, would be all at hand and ready for the impreſſion. When the bill came before the committee, he ſhould go more at length into particulars, and he ſhould alſo ſtate ſome doubts he entertained with regard to commuting perſonal ſervice into a fine. He thought, that every man who was able to ſerve ſhould be compelled to do ſo, or find a ſubſtitute. There was nothing new in the meaſure, its only novelty was the advantage and efficiency which would be derived from it. If a fine for not ſerving was laid equally on all ranks, it would certainly be moſt unjuſt. It was not wiſhed to increaſe the revenue, but to augment the force of the kingdom. There are many who would willingly pay a fine of 20l. to hear no more of the matter; but were that accepted, all the induſtry, influence, and activity of ſuch men would be utterly local to government. If there was a fine at all, it ought to be progreſſive in proportion to every man's income and means, which could eaſily be aſcertained. If a perſon of property and influence ſhould be drawn, the fine would be nothing for him to pay; but government ought to ſecure the exertions of ſuch men; they ought to convert them, as it were, into recruiting officers, to procure ſubſtitutes, and reject the fine until they procured the ſubſtitute. Thus government would have the benefit, the activity of ſuch perſons, which would redound much to their own honour, and to the benefit and proſperity of the ſtate. The hon. gentleman concluded by ſupporting the motion for the ſecond reading of the bill.

The bill was read a ſecond time, and ordered to be committed.

The houſe having gone into a committee on the aſſeſſed taxes bill, reſolutions were adopted, and bills ordered to be brought in, for raiſing upon all travellers, and other male perſons in the ſervice of merchants, the ſum of two guineas yearly, and upon all beyond a certain number three guineas; upon every ſhopman one guinea; every waiter in taverns, &c. two guineas; every book-keeper, 1l. 8s. and upon every one beyond a certain number, two guineas.

Friday, June 24.

On the motion of Mr. ADDINGTON, the houſe went into a committee of ways and means.

Mr. ADDINGTON informed the committee, that he had now to ſtate, for their conſideration, the terms on which he engaged for the lottery. He contracted for three lotteries for the ſervice of the preſent year. It had been deemed expedient to reduce the number of tickets, as well as the ſums in this way. This year the bidding had taken place on 70,000 tickets, with power to increaſe them to 80,000. The prizes laſt year amounted to 900,000l. and in the preſent year they would amount to 700,000l. This made a profit in favour of the public of 352,000l. greater than the average profit of the laſt twelve years. The price of the preſent tickets was 13l. 3s. 1d. He concluded by moving, that 1,052,333l. 6s. 3d. be raiſed by three lotteries for the ſervice of the preſent year.

After ſome converſation, the reſolution was agreed to.

Monday, June 27.

The bill for making roads and building bridges in the Highlands of Scotland was read a third time, and paſſed.

Tueſday, June 23.

Mr. ADDINGTON moved the order of the day for taking into conſideration the amendments made by the lords in the clergy bill.

The SPEAKER ſtated, that the amendments impoſed certain pecuniary penalties for non-reſidence, and that by ſo doing their lordſhips had interfered in the privileges of the houſe, which they had no right to do. He therefore propoſed, in order to reject their lordſhips' amendments, that ſome honourable gentleman would

move a very remote day for their being taken into conſideration.

Sir WM. SCOTT moved, that the amendments be taken into conſideration on this day three months. Ordered, *nem. con.* The bill was therefore loſt.

Sir Wm. Scott then obtained leave to bring in a bill for amending the laws relative to ſpiritual perſons holding farms. This bill goes to meet the amendments made by the lords on the original bill.

Thurſday, June 30.

Mr. ALEXANDER brought up the report of the committee of ſupply, granting 20,000l. toward the expence of a canal between Inverneſs and Fort William.—Agreed to.

The SECRETARY at WAR moved the order of the day for the third reading of the army of reſerve bill.—The bill was paſſed.

Monday, July 4.

The bill for improving the port of London was read a third time and paſſed.

Mr. ROSE moved for leave to bring in a bill for procuring returns relative to the expence and maintenance of the poor in England. The honourable gentleman ſtated, that he had three objects in view by the bill. The firſt was, to aſcertain the number of poor; ſecondly, the means of ſupporting them; and the third was for the prevention of crimes. His great point was to diſcover the extent of the ſums laid out for the ſupport of the poor, which were levied in the different pariſhes. He meant to follow up this, ſhould he ſucceed in obtaining it, by a meaſure for diminiſhing the expence the country in general ſuſtained for the relief of the poor. In a large diſtrict in Lincolnſhire, the meaſure he had hinted at had been tried, which was that of inſtructing poor children in various employments; even ſo young as five years of age, they had ſupported themſelves; and thoſe advanced to the age of twelve or thirteen, earned from five to ſix ſhillings a week. He then proceeded to ſhew, that by the adoption of ſuch a plan, the ſyſtem of workhouſes would in a great degree be done away, as they would only become receptacles for the aged and infirm poor, and for deſerted helpleſs children. The next point of inquiry would be, to aſcertain the number of friendly ſocieties, becauſe, wherever they had been encouraged, the number of poor had very much diminiſhed in workhouſes, becauſe the members of theſe ſocieties ſupported themſelves. He had good reaſon to believe, that the number in theſe ſocieties ſupported themſelves. He had good reaſon to believe, that the number in theſe ſocieties at preſent was between five and ſix hundred thouſand. After ſome further remarks, which went to intimate an intention of obliging the pariſhes, in certain caſes, to give relief to aged members of friendly ſocieties, the honourable gentleman concluded by making the motion he ſet out with.—Leave given.

Monday, July 11.

Lord CASTLEREAGH brought down a meſſage from his majeſty, ſtating, that his majeſty thought it neceſſary to acquaint the houſe, that in conſideration of the many eminent ſervices of the late Geoffrey lord Amherſt, in America, particularly in the reduction of Canada, his majeſty had been induced, at the termination of the war, to grant to lord Amherſt certain tracts of land in that province; but, in conſequence of ſome local circumſtances, the grant had not been carried into effect. His majeſty, therefore, relied on the juſtice and liberality of his faithful commons, in making ſuch compenſation to lord Amherſt as they might think fit. Ordered to be taken into conſideration.

Wedneſday, July 13.

Mr. ADDINGTON moved the order of the day for the farther conſideration of the report of the income bill, in order to its re-committal.

Mr. W. SMITH, in a ſpeech of ſome length, oppoſed the motion.

Mr. PITT then roſe. He began by obſerving, that the comments of the honourable gentleman with regard to the bill were not new; they had been echoed in the houſe, and through the country at large; but he had one unanſwerable argument in favour of the old income bill, that its principle of operation had been equal in all its bearings, and had ſhewn no invidious partiality. The honourable gentleman ſurely could not be ſo ſanguine in expecting the houſe would agree with his opinions, when the plan itſelf, to which he had not objected, of raiſing the ſupplies within the year, had been adopted by parliament, and was at the preſent in full force. He did not ſay this merely on the opinion which had been expreſſed by parliament, but he thought that was owing to the common enemy, for having opened the eyes of many men, and for having diſſipated certain ideas which he knew had been prevalent in the country. The honourable gentleman choſe to go entirely on theory, and to form opinions on the ideas of thoſe who had ventured to predict

that ſuch a tax as that on income never could exiſt. He had mentioned his reſpectable nameſake, and with him he had canonized another character not ſo reſpectable. But the houſe was in poſſeſſion of facts reſpecting the expediency of an income tax, and there was no occaſion to revert to the opinions of thoſe departed ſages. At a period of gloomy deſpondency, and when danger threatened the country on every hand, that tax had been reſorted to, and it had ſucceeded. The honourable gentleman had ſaid, that the tax would not fall heavy on the trading intereſt. Certainly one claſs of men liked to deal extenſively, and to have much labour; another ſet of men wiſhed to deal largely, at a great riſk; and a third wiſhed immenſe profits, with lazineſs and idleneſs; but the great leading feature of the income tax was, that it only touched profits in trade, which had found their own fair level, leaving the capital to be uſed and employed as its proprietor choſe. This, however, only did, or could take place, provided the principle of the income tax was fairly acted on. Mr. Pitt then proceeded to take a very wide and extended view of the preſent bill. He contended, and that in moſt nervous language, that its principle was unequal in its operation. By the bill as it ſtood, all income derived from any ſource but the funds, below 150l. per annum, was liable to various abatements and deductions, ſo low as 60l. beyond which it did not go. On the contrary, all income beyond 150l. per annum was to be equally aſſeſſed and charged. He combated this idea in ſtrong terms. He ſtated, that there were many individuals in the country who derived the whole of their ſupport from 100l. in the funds. On that they would be charged at the rate of 1s. per pound, while a man who derived an income of 100l. from his labour, from his ſalary, or from any other ſource, would not be charged ſo much on account of the abatements allowed in the bill, to thoſe having incomes under 150l. Such a proviſion, he contended, was nothing leſs than a breach of public faith, when it touched property veſted in the funds. Every loan-bill which paſſed the houſe declared, that the intereſt of money veſted in the national ſecurity ſhould be paid duty free. He argued, that it was peculiarly hard to ſelect the poorer claſſes of ſociety who held property in the funds; for this tax, he repeated it, was a violation of the general compact, and the firſt blow at the national credit. After expatiating at great length on this and other topics, he concluded by ſtating it to be his intention to move an inſtruction to the committee, for the purpoſe of equalizing the tax.

Mr. ADDINGTON contended, that there was nothing in the meaſure which in the leaſt trenched upon the ſanctity of the public faith. Then ſtating the principle as it applied to the different deſcriptions of income, he ſaid that it was intended in the committee to introduce a clauſe, exempting from the tax a capital of 200l. and under in the funds. This he contended was fair and equal, as at the uſual rate of profit required by ſmall dealers, which was not leſs than thirty per cent. a capital of 200l. would produce an income of ſixty pounds, the amount at which the abſolute exemption commenced for all income ariſing from capital improved by induſtry.

Mr. PITT propoſed that the committee ſhould be inſtructed to make a proviſion, that whatever exemptions were made in favour of any deſcription of income, like exemptions ſhould be extended to income ariſing from property in the funds.

The SPEAKER thought it his duty to ſtate, that he had doubts as to the regularity of the proceeding now propoſed.

The houſe divided on Mr. Pitt's inſtruction, Ayes 50; Noes, 150. Majority againſt it, 100.—The bill was then committed.

Thurſday, July 14.

The income bill was recommitted. A variety of verbal and other amendments were propoſed, upon which a very long converſation enſued, maintained by ſeveral members.

Mr. ADDINGTON at length aroſe. He ſtated, that his purpoſe in addreſſing the committee was in order to ſave a conſiderable degree of diſcuſſion. He had conſidered, with the utmoſt attention he had been enabled to afford, the various opinions which had been brought forward yeſterday; and, notwithſtanding the utmoſt attention he had given to them, he was ſtill more convinced that no imputation of breach of faith could exiſt againſt his majeſty's miniſters; and the more fully was he convinced that he was not unwarranted in not extending the exemption beyond the limits of the bill, ſtill, for the ſake of unanimity, he ſhould wave his opinion, and agree to the exemptions with regard to income from the funds and from land, as had been ſuggeſted laſt night. At the ſame time he made this conceſſion, he begged the committee to recollect, that

that this exemption would certainly cauſe a conſiderable defalcation in the ways and means for the enſuing year, which muſt of neceſſity be made up in another manner.

Mr. PITT ſaid, that what had fallen from his right honourable friend afforded him matter of inexpreſſible ſatisfaction — After enlarging on the good effects which would reſult from the conceſſion of the chancellor of the exchequer, he concluded by declaring, that to the other parts of the bill he had very trifling, if any, objections to offer.

A good deal of converſation enſued on ſeveral of the clauſes. The chairman reported progreſs, and obtained leave to ſit again to-morrow.—Adjourned.

Friday, July 15.

Sir WM SCOTT obtained leave to bring in a bill for encouraging the reſidence of the ſtipendiary curates on their cures.

Monday, July 18.

DEFENCE OF THE COUNTRY.

The SECRETARY at WAR ſtated, that he roſe in purſuance of a notice he had given, to move for leave to bring in a bill, amending and rendering more effectual the act for the defence of the country, and enabling his majeſty to exerciſe his ancient and undoubted privilege of calling forth the ſervice of his liege ſubjects. In bringing forward a meaſure of this importance, it would naturally be expected that he ſhould explain its intended operations, and this he ſhould do as conciſely as poſſible. The bill would enable his majeſty to take additional means for the ſecurity of the country, by converting and applying to that end ſuch parts and portions of the landed property as of individuals in certain diſtricts, and on certain points of the coaſt, as might be neceſſary. The bill would at the ſame time contain ſummary proviſions, indemnifying thoſe who might ſo ſuffer in their property. The bill would be founded in a great meaſure on the act paſſed laſt war, nearly to the ſame effect; but that act did not go far enough, as his majeſty was not authoriſed to call for the general ſervices of the people. The preſent bill would give his majeſty that power, and indeed it was doing nothing more than recogniſing an ancient prerogative of the crown, countenanced and acted on at all times when the country had been threatened with invaſion. He then proceeded to explain the nature of the king's prerogative in this inſtance, as laid down by the old rolls of parliament, and defined by judge Blackſtone, which deſcribed the king's privilege of arraying and training to arms all men capable of ſervice, dividing them into bodies, and marching them to the coaſt, whenever an apprehenſion of a deſcent was entertained. His majeſty had alſo, by the old laws, a power of arreſting and committing to priſon all thoſe who refuſed their aid and aſſiſtance in ſuch caſes of emergency. This was alſo an ancient parliamentary recognition, and it was now expedient to eſtabliſh ſome ſimple mode by which it might once more be acted on. The moſt active enemy the country ever had, at the preſent moment not only threatens our ſhores with the contamination and pollution of their footſteps, but dared openly to avow their deſigns of completely ſubjugating the country. It was true, that our naval and military eſtabliſhments were unuſually great, but from the wide range of our enemy's ſhores, our fleet muſt neceſſarily be in ſome degree diſperſed; and on our army at preſent, great and powerful as it was, we muſt not entirely rely. The French might be ſaid to be maſters of the coaſt from the frontier of Holſtein to the Adriatic, with the exception of our old and faithful ally, Portugal. Although he relied on the ſtrength and courage of our navy, which he would ſay, was the greateſt in the world, yet it was impoſſible, with all its vigilance, its foreſight and activity, hermetically to ſeal, as it were, all the outlets and ports in the poſſeſſion of the French on the continent, and to prevent this country from being attacked. The enemy has determined to invade England, and he would ſuppoſe that they ſucceeded in throwing a conſiderable body on ſome part of the coaſt. He would even ſuppoſe their tranſports to be diſperſed, and in ſuch a ſituation that they might land fifty thouſand men, more or leſs, ſea-ſick *(a laugh)*. Although a gueſs might be pretty generally entertained whereabouts they might make ſuch an attempt, ſtill ſuch a circumſtance ought not to be at all relied on; but the country ought to be armed at all points, ready to repel them whenever they might endeavour to land. In ſuch circumſtances the beſt mode of reſiſtance was what he had juſt ſtated, to be prepared in every direction. We ought to have line on line, legion on legion, army on army, in order to make up the deficiency which would be occaſioned by thoſe who might fall in the glorious ſtruggle. If the country was invaded, the duty in the field would be moſt arduous and ſevere. It would, in ſuch a caſe, be impoſſible to look to any mode of re-

cruiting, not even tha ballot itſelf. On the contrary, the king's prerogative would, of neceſſity, be put in full force. The country could not do better than bear in its recollection how it had been preſerved in the time of the Plantagenets, by a ſimilar line of conduct, and that the throne of Eliſabeth, when invaſion from Spain was menaced, had been ſecured. It had been ſecured by that ſame ſpirit and energy in the minds of the people, which he beheld every day with pleaſure, and which, he was convinced, properly applied, would conduce to the ſafety and honour of the realm. In the preſent meaſure he had two principal heads in view: the firſt related to the enrolment and aſſembling the men; and the ſecond related to their exercise and training. He propoſed to make as much uſe as poſſible of the machinery of the militia. It was intended that the lieutenancy of the counties ſhould meet as ſoon as poſſible, in order to enrol all men between the ages of 17 and 55. He ſhould divide thoſe men into four claſſes. The firſt would contain all the young men from 17 to 30, unmarried, and without children. The ſecond would comprehend all men from 30 to 50, in the ſame predicament, he meant unmarried, and without children. The third claſs would be compoſed of all from 17 to 30, married, and who had children; and the fourth claſs would conſiſt of all men of other deſcriptions, from 17 to 55. The liſts made up by the lieutenancies would diſtinguiſh clergymen, thoſe ſerving in the army of reſerve, the militia, or any volunteer corps, whoſe offer of ſervice had been approved of and accepted by his majeſty; the liſts would alſo diſtinguiſh thoſe ſerving in the militia by ſubſtitutes, becauſe a man ſerving in that manner, either in the militia, or army of reſerve, had the public faith pledged to his exemption. He did not mean to diſtinguiſh thoſe who had ſerved by ſubſtitutes, as a perſon who had done ſo might certainly be again called on. The liſts would be collected annually, and abſtracts of them would be tranſmitted to the ſecretary of ſtate. It was propoſed, that in caſe of actual invaſion, or the approach of the enemy to the coaſt, all thoſe on the liſts ſhould be directly called out to repel them; that in ſuch a caſe they ſhould be liable to ſerve in any part of Great Britain, in any corps ſerving in the field, or in any of the new corps. The time of their ſervice would, he truſted, be ſhort, being merely intended until the extermination of the enemy. When the men firſt aſſembled, it was intended they ſhould receive a bounty of two guineas from the receiver-general of the county, for the purpoſe of ſupplying them with neceſſaries, and when about to return home, they ſhould be entitled to an additional guinea to carry them to their friends.—When they aſſembled, the oath of fidelity ſhould be adminiſtered to them, and alſo an oath to repel invaſion, inſurrection, or rebellion. Gentlemen might talk of the increaſed population of the acceſſion thereby brought to its natural ſtrength, but, unleſs every man knew the uſe of a firelock, and how to handle it with effect, all vaunting of the kind was abſurd and trifling in the extreme. Our anceſtors, even in the time of Henry VIII, were called on for the purpoſe of exerciſe in the art of ſhooting, and he hoped the time was not far off when an act would paſs, enforcing theſe ſalutary exerciſes in all ſchools open for the inſtruction of youth, and that the ſcience of the muſket would become a component and eſſential point in the education of the riſing generation, without which they ought to be made feel, that neither their honour, their property, nor all that is dear to man could be preſerved from ruin. It was propoſed, that the young men compoſing the firſt claſs ſhould be drilled and exerciſed once a week, and that their arms ſhould be depoſited in the different pariſh churches, or in ſome other receptacle where they would be ſafe. It was alſo intended, that to every 120 men there ſhould be appointed one captain, two lieutenants, and an enſign, ſubject to his majeſty's approbation: it was alſo in contemplation, that the drills ſhould take place every Sunday, between Lady-day and Michaelmas. There were ſeveral trifling penalties for abſence, which he detailed. Power was to be given to the lords lieutenants to agree with any men regularly trained, who had ſerved in any deſcription of his majeſty's forces, in order to diſcipline them, and who would receive a compenſation for his trouble. Men of that deſcription he knew were to be met in abundance in every pariſh, fully qualified to inſtruct men in the mode of priming and loading with quickneſs and preciſion, and alſo in the mode of facing to the right and left. To impart the firſt principle of tactics would require no great time; all that was required was to make men active; it was not wanted to make them ſoldiers for all the purpoſes of parade and manœuvre, but to give them an idea of the uſe of the firelock, which once attained was never loſt.—Having enlarged on theſe points, he proceeded

to ſay, that an objection might be ſtarted to the policy of the meaſure; namely, that it was dangerous to put arms into the hands of people indiſcriminately. There might be ſome force in ſuch a remark, but his anſwer to it was extremely brief. The country had only a choice of difficulties, and much would depend on the exertions of the lieutenancy, as the repreſentative of the crown, toward the conſervation of the public tranquillity. But he could not bring himſelf to feel any danger whatever on the ſcore of the people being armed. It was better to run the hazard than they ſhould be ignorant of the uſe of arms, or ſhould ultimately be compelled to ſubmit to a rancorous and implacable foe; and with regard to the mind, heart, and feeling of his countrymen, he ſhould not pay them ſo bad a compliment, as for an inſtant to imagine them capable of ſuch baſe conduct, unworthy of their high name. He then proceeded to ſtate, that although the arſenals were never better ſupplied than at the preſent moment, ſome difficulty might occur in furniſhing the arms to this additional body, it was therefore in contemplation to order returns from all parts of the country of the private arms in the poſſeſſion of individuals. He then recapitulated ſeveral parts of the plan, which he thought would ſufficiently ſatisfy the curioſity of the French, who even doubted whether this country could produce men who were entitled to be called ſoldiers. Bonaparte had no great experience with regard to the intrepidity of Britiſh ſoldiers, yet, unleſs his memory was miſerably bad, or his recollection entirely impaired, he might remember a ſmall event that took place at Toulon, where the redoubt of De Graſſe was defended by a handful of Engliſhmen under the command of a meritorious officer, now no more, col. Duncan, of the artillery. Many of the French generals were young men, who had not ſeen much proweſs, gave them, as men of honour, a character for ſteady courage, invincible perſeverance and intrepidity, not unworthy of the moſt celebrated ages of antiquity, when every man conceived victory to depend on his ſingle arm. After complimenting the valour of the Britiſh character in very handſome terms, the hon. gentleman concluded by moving for leave to bring in a bill rendering more effectual the act of this ſeſſion eſtabliſhing the army of reſerve, by enabling his majeſty more effectually and ſpeedily to require the aid and aſſiſtance of his liege ſubjects in caſe of invaſion.

After ſome obſervations by Mr. Windham, lord Hawkeſbury, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, and ſeveral others, the bill was read a firſt and ſecond time, committed, reported, *pro forma*, and ordered to be taken into farther conſideration on Wedneſday.

Wedneſday, July 20.

Mr. ADDINGTON brought down a meſſage from his majeſty, nearly in the following words:

'G. R.

'His majeſty, relying on the zealous ſupport of his faithful commons in the vigorous proſecution of the war, recommends to their ſerious conſideration the propriety of making proviſion for defraying ſuch extraordinary expences as may be incurred in the ſervice of the preſent year, and of taking ſuch other meaſures for the defence and ſecurity of the country as the exigencies of the period may require.'

On the motion of Mr. Addington, the meſſage was referred to the conſideration of a committee of ſupply.

The houſe was informed, by a meſſage from the lords, that their lordſhips had agreed to the friendly ſociety bill, the black game preſervation bill, and the Guernſey corn bill.

The SECRETARY at WAR moved the order of the day for the further conſideration of the report of the bill amending the defence act.

After ſome remarks from Mr. Pitt, who wiſhed the diſcuſſion to be ſuſpended until the third reading of the bill; from Mr. Wyndham, who wiſhed it to proceed; and from Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Kinnaird, the bill was recommitted.

The ſecretary at war ſtated, that he had ſome amendments to propoſe, which he hoped would obviate ſeveral objections which he believed were entertained againſt the bill. The principle of the bill was calling out the liege ſubjects of the king in order to defend the country. For that purpoſe it was neceſſary to enroll them, in order to aſcertain the number, as any reliance on general accounts and returns would prove entirely nugatory. If ſufficient time was not allowed for the purpoſe of filling the rolls, the meaſure would prove abortive. With regard to the clauſe relating to the aſſembly of this additional force, he ſhould be glad to hear any propoſition more ſpeedy or effectual than that contained in the bill. The firſt amendment which he meant to offer was, a clauſe enabling his majeſty to iſſue proviſional orders to the lieutenants of the maritime counties, ſuch as Kent, Suſſex, Eſſex, &c.

in caſe of danger, to exhibit ſignals of alarm, and to take meaſures beforehand for aſſembling the people. On ſuch an occaſion, the men of the firſt claſs would move out, and thoſe of the ſecond would be ready to follow. The next clauſe which he ſhould propoſe was one which would correſpond with a clauſe he intended to introduce in the volunteer corps bill to-morrow, declaring that, in the event of men of the firſt claſs being ordered to march, thoſe volunteer corps which had offered to extend their ſervices ſhould at the ſame time march, but not beyond the limits within which their offers of ſervice had been accepted. Reſpecting the exerciſe and training of the additional force, a clauſe would be introduced, carrying the period beyond Michaelmas, and an amendment would alſo be propoſed reſpecting the day of drill in Scotland. He underſtood that ſome difficulty would ariſe from drilling in that country on Sundays: as he wiſhed to afford every relief to tender conſciences, power would be given to the lieutenants in Scotland to appoint drills on the moſt convenient days, at the ſame time giving them the power of appointing them to take place on Sundays if neceſſary. There would be no objection to men drilling more days in the week than one. He ſtated alſo, that from the beſt authority he could collect, the number of men which would be procured under the firſt claſs would amount to 400,000. He was not aware that he had any thing further to ſtate, or any other amendments to propoſe. On thoſe which he had offered, he wiſhed to hear the opinion of the committee before he ſhould move them.

Lord CASTLEREAGH ſuggeſted, that power ſhould be given to the lieutenants to call on the voluntary ſervices of all ranks at once, at the ſame time the enrollment might go hand in hand with ſuch a requiſition.

Mr. PITT, in a very long ſpeech, ſupported the ſuggeſtion of his hon. and noble friend. His great object was to get rid of the tedious proceſs of enrolling men, which he ſhowed would occupy a vaſt deal of time, infinitely more than could be ſpared at the preſent criſis, by calling on the people at their own doors to come forward in the general defence. He alſo ſaid, that if 3 4ths of the number ſtated by the hon. ſecretary were obtained by this means, then the compulſory part of the bill ought to ceaſe. He had entertained this plea for ſome time, and had prepared a rough clauſe to that effect. By the bill, the length of time in enrolling and calling out the men was ſixty days. He proceeded to ſhow various modes of abridging that period, on which, and on the propriety of voluntary ſervice, he expatiated at length with aſtoniſhing perſpicuity.

After a very general converſation, the ſubject was, on the recommendation of Mr. Addington, dropped for the preſent, and the committee proceeded to the conſideration of the different clauſes in their order.

In the courſe of this conſideration, the following were the principal amendments which were adopted:

On the motion of Mr. Pitt, the time allowed to conſtables for giving in liſts was altered from ten days to ſeven; and the time for houſekeepers to make returns of their lodgers was ſhortened from ſeven to two days.

On the motion of Mr. Sheridan, ſupported by Mr. Pitt, Mr. Addington, Mr. W. Smith, lord Hawkeſbury, Mr. Kinnaird, and ſir J. Pulteney, and oppoſed by the attorney-general, the ſecretary at war, and Mr. Tierney, the exemption in favour of perſons ſerving by ſubſtitute in the militia was negatived.

In conſequence of this reſolution, the exemption in favour of perſons ſerving by ſubſtitute in the army of reſerve was alſo expunged.

The committee having, after the diſcuſſion and adoption of the intermediate clauſes, come to the conſideration of that which fixes the days for training,

Mr. Pitt ſtated, that he had to propoſe an amendment upon this part of the bill, which he would not now preſs upon the committee, but leave to their conſideration, and that of the ſecretary at war, for the purpoſe of being introduced at a ſubſequent ſtate. The meaſure had now aſſumed that form and conſiſtency that the greateſt hopes might be entertained of its efficacy as a general and permanent meaſure of defence and ſecurity. But contemplating the period within which it was generally ſuppoſed the enemy would attempt to carry his meaſure into effect, he conceived that for the preſent year the days of training ſhould not be limited to thoſe which might be ſufficient in the future permanent operation of the bill. That period was imagined to be that ſeaſon of the year when the dark nights would be favourable to the enemy's movements, and when, from the ſtreſs of weather, our fleets might be driven from their ſtation.

He therefore felt the utmoſt anxiety that the whole of thoſe whoſe ſervices would in the firſt inſtance be called for, ſhould be prepared to meet the enemy before the approach of that ſeaſon. It would for this purpoſe be neceſſary to introduce a clauſe to continue the training for twenty or thirty days in ſucceſſion, from the immediate paſſing of the bill; and if the enemy but gave us this delay, by which we ſhould have from three to four hundred thouſand men in arms, he was ſatisfied that they would heſitate a little before they ventured to execute their threats of invaſion. Were the country but once in a ſtate of preparation, he hoped he might, without any imputation of vaunting, be permitted to ſay, that it would be the moſt deſirable and fortunate event which could happen for the ultimate repoſe of this country and of Europe, to have to decide the conteſt upon Britiſh ground. When he contemplated the character of the man with whom we had to do, when he conſidered the reſtleſs activity of his guilty and unfated ambition, he certainly ſuſpected that he would not wait until we had ſo far advanced in our preparations. Even in that caſe, however, he looked with the firmeſt confidence to the iſſue of the conteſt, and felt convinced that his diſcomfiture and diſgrace, though not ſo immediate, would not be the leſs certain. On the other hand, ſhould he delay his meditated deſcent till the whole maſs of the country was ready to take the field, it was rather an object of apprehenſion than otherwiſe, that he would not give us the deſirable opportunity of meeting him upon our own territory. Should he be ſo far infatuated as to give us ſuch an opportunity, there would be an end of all fears of invaſion for centuries to come. Such an event would not only lay the foundation of a new era of ſecurity and glory for Great Britain, but would open a door for the deliverance of Europe. The return of the wreck and ruin of his baffled and defeated army, with their hopes diſappointed, their reputation annihilated, and their proud vauntings turned into ſhame and confuſion, would at the ſame time ſtrike a damp into the ſpirits of their countrymen, and by diſſolving the magic attached from a career of extraordinary ſucceſſes, to the name of their commander, rouſe the nations of the continent from their preſent apathy, and embolden them once more to join their efforts with ours for the re-attainment of their place in the rank of powers, and the reſtoration of the real independance of Europe—In forwarding the neceſſary preparations for rendering the force to be raiſed under the bill efficient, he particularly relied on the activity and patriotic zeal of the farmers, the yeomanry, and the landholders. It was certainly to be wiſhed that this great duty ſhould as little as poſſible interfere with the labours of agriculture; but he would impreſs it on their minds, that the queſtion moſt to be revolved in the preſent circumſtances of the country was, not how the harveſt was to be got in, but by whom it was to be conſumed; not who ſhould ſow, but who was to reap. He hoped, however, immenſe as the force would be, that the three remaining claſſes would be found ſufficient to carry on not only the agriculture, but every other branch of induſtry. From ſuch a force, animated with the importance of the cauſe in which they had to combat, the religion, the conſtitution, the independence, and the glory of their country, every ſucceſs was to be augured. With this view of the ſubject, he could not but anxiouſly calculate the hours and moments until our preparations had attained a ſtate of completion. Upon the zeal and activity of the preſent moment depended perhaps the ſalvation of this country, and the deſtiny of Europe.

The SECRETARY at WAR approved of Mr. Pitt's ſuggeſtion, and expreſſed a deſire of his aſſiſtance in drawing up a clauſe for carrying it into effect.

Mr. SHERIDAN alſo expreſſed his approbation of it.

The clauſe being then read, Mr. Wilberforce and ſeveral other gentlemen objected to it, and the ſecretary at war ſaid, that, in order to meet the wiſhes of gentlemen, he ſhould propoſe an amendment, appointing Sunday, or any other convenient day in the week, for the purpoſe of drill.—This amendment was agreed to.

Thurſday, July 21.

Lord HAWKESBURY brought down a meſſage from the king, ſtating, that his majeſty having taken into conſideration the ſituation of the illuſtrious houſe of Orange, and the bonds of alliance between that houſe and his majeſty, and alſo the many loſſes ſuſtained by them during the late war, recommended the ſubject to the ſerious conſideration of his faithful commons, and relied on their taking ſuch means as would enable his majeſty to make a pecuniary compenſation to the houſe of Orange, on the ground of ſuch loſſes.

His lordſhip then moved, that the meſſage be taken into conſideration in a committee of ſupply.—Ordered.

The houſe went into a committee on his

majeſty's meſſage relative to the compenſation to be granted to the repreſentatives of the late lord Amherſt, in lieu of certain lands in Canada. Mr. Addington moved that an annuity of 3000l. commencing the 5th of July 1803, be granted to the repreſentatives of lord Amherſt.—This induced a ſhort converſation between Mr. Courtney, Mr. Canning, Mr. Addington, and ſir W. Dolben, when the reſolution was agreed to.

The SECRETARY at WAR moved the order of the day for the houſe going again into a committee on the additional defence bill.—The houſe then went into the committee, and the different enactments and ſchedules of the bill were gone through with very little comment.—The ſecretary at war brought up ſeveral new clauſes, containing exemptions in favour of the judges of England and Scotland, authoriſing the lord lieutenant to direct the ſheriff to call out the people on the approach or landing of the enemy; declaring that volunteers who had offered to extend their ſervices ſhould march at the ſame time with the men of the firſt claſs; enacting that the additional force ſhould be trained twenty-one days up to the 25th of December next, &c. Several members ſpoke on theſe clauſes.

On the motion of the ſecretary at war, the additional defence bill was read a third time. The hon. ſecretary then propoſed the following new clauſes; allowing perſons having two places of reſidence to enrol themſelves in one, on giving notice at the other. The ſecond clauſe was puniſhing diſobedience or miſconduct while at exerciſe, by a fine not exceeding 5s for each offence, and ordering impriſonment till the fine ſhould be paid. The third clauſe declared the act ſhould not, in future, be taken as a precedent againſt the exemption of the city of London.

The next clauſe provided, that thoſe who do not drill on Sunday ſhall receive no pay for exerciſing any day in the week, unleſs they make affidavit of their religious ſcruples before a magiſtrate; and the laſt clauſe gave the lord warden of the cinque ports the ſame powers for the execution of the act as were given to the lords lieutenant.

After ſome obſervations, the bill was paſſed, and ordered to the lords.

[To be continued.]

HANOVERIAN ARMY.

[From the French Papers.]

TWENTY-FOUR hours after the arrival of the courier, with the convention of Suhlingen, relative to the army of the king of England in Hanover, the firſt conſul ſent it to the Engliſh government, in order to aſcertain whether his Britannic majeſty would ratify it.

The MINISTER of FOREIGN AFFAIRS to Lord HAWKESBURY.

Paris, 21 Prairial (June 30.)

My Lord,

After a ſlight engagement with the troops of his Britannic majeſty, the French army occupies the country of Hanover. The firſt conſul having had in view nothing but the procuring of pledges for the evacuation of Malta, and the completing the execution of the treaty of Amiens, did not wiſh to make the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty experience all the rigours of war. The firſt conſul, however, cannot ratify the convention concluded between the French army and his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects, until it ſhall be ratified by his Britannic majeſty, and in that caſe, the firſt conſul charges me expreſly to declare that it is his intention that the army of the king of England be, in the firſt inſtance, exchanged for all the ſailors or ſoldiers his majeſty's ſhips may have made or may be in the ſituation of making priſoners. The firſt conſul would ſee with pain his Britannic majeſty, by refuſing to ratify the ſaid convention, obliging the French government to treat the country of Hanover with all the rigour of war, and, as a country which, left to itſelf, abandoned by its ſovereign, would be conſidered as conquered without capitulation, and given up to the direction of the power occupying it. I ſhall wait with impatience, my lord, for your making known to me his Britannic majeſty's intentions.—Receive, my lord, the aſſurance of my higheſt conſideration.

REPLY of Lord HAWKESBURY to the MINISTER of FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, June 15.

I have laid before his majeſty your letter of the 10th inſtant. His majeſty has directed me to inform you, that as he has always conſidered the character of elector

of Hanover as diſtinct from his character of king of the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, he cannot conſent to acquieſce in any act which might eſtabliſh the idea that he is juſtly ſuſceptible of being attacked in one capacity for the conduct he may have thought it his duty to adopt in another. It is not the firſt time that this principle has been advanced. It has been recogniſed by ſeveral powers of Europe, and more particularly by the French government, which in 1795, in conſequence of the acceſſion of his majeſty to the treaty of Baſle, acknowledged his neutrality in his capacity of elector of Hanover at the moment they were at war with him in his quality of king of Great Britain. This principle has been moreover confirmed by his majeſty's conduct with reſpect to the treaty of Luneville, and by the arrangements which have lately taken place relative to the German indemnities, which were to have for their object the providing for the independence of the empire, and which have been ſolemnly guaranteed by the principal powers of Europe, but in which his majeſty, as king of Great Britain, took no part. Under theſe circumſtances his majeſty is determined, in his character of elector of Hanover, to appeal to the empire and to the powers of Europe who have guaranteed the Germanic conſtitution, and conſequently his rights and poſſeſſions in quality of prince of that empire. Until his majeſty be informed of their ſentiments, he has commanded me to ſay, that in his character of elector of Hanover, he will ſcrupulouſly abſtain from every act which might be conſidered as contravening the ſtipulation contained in the convention which was concluded on the 3d of June, between the deputies appointed by the regency of Hanover and the French government. I entreat you to accept the aſſurances of the high conſideration with which I have the honour to be, ſir, your very humble and obedient,

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

The king of England having refuſed to ratify the convention of Suhlingen, the firſt conſul has been obliged to conſider that convention as null. In conſequence thereof lieutenant-general Mortier, commander in chief of the French army, and his excellency count de Walmoden, commander in chief of the Hanoverian army, have agreed to the following capitulation, which ſhall be immediately executed, without being of a nature to be ſubmitted to the ratification of the two governments.

Article I. The Hanoverian army ſhall lay down its arms; they ſhall be given up, with all its artillery, to the French.

II. All the horſes of the Hanoverian cavalry and artillery ſhall be given up to the French army, by one of the members of the ſtates. A commiſſioner appointed by the commander in chief to that effect, ſhall be inſtantly ſent to take an account of their ſtate and number.

III. The Hanoverian army ſhall be diſbanded; the troops ſhall repaſs the Elbe, and withdraw to their reſpective homes. They ſhall previouſly give their parole not to carry arms againſt France and her allies until after having been exchanged for thoſe of equal rank by as many French military as may be taken by the Engliſh in the courſe of the preſent war.

IV. The Hanoverian generals and officers ſhall retire upon their parole to the places which they may chooſe for their abode, provided they do not depart from the continent. They ſhall keep their ſwords and take away with them their horſes, effects, and baggage.

V. There ſhall be given to the commander in chief of the French army, with the leaſt poſſible delay, a nominal liſt of all the individuals of whom the Hanoverian army is compoſed.

VI. The Hanoverian ſoldiers ſent to their reſpective homes ſhall not be allowed to wear their uniforms.

VII. They ſhall be provided with ſubſiſtence until their return home, and forage ſhall alſo be granted to the horſes of the officers.

VIII. The 16th and 17th articles of the convention of Suhlingen ſhall be applicable to the Hanoverian army.

IX. The French troops ſhall immediately occupy that part of the electorate of Hanover ſituate in the country of Lauenburg.

Signed, by duplicate, on the Elbe, this 5th of July, the 11th year of the French republic.

Lieutenant-general, commander in chief of the French army,

EDWARD MORTIER.

Marſhal Coun. DE WALMODEN.

DECLARATION *of the* MERCHANTS, BANKERS, *&c. of* LONDON.

AT a meeting of the merchants, bankers, traders, and other inhabitants of London and its neighbourhood, held at the Royal Exchange, on Tueſday, July 26, Jacob Boſanquet, eſq. in the chair, the following Declaration was unanimouſly agreed on:

'We, the merchants, bankers, traders, and other inhabitants of London, and its neighbourhood, deem it our bounden duty, at the preſent momentous period, to make public our *unanimous* determination to *ſtand* or *fall* with our *king and country*.

'The independence and exiſtence of the Britiſh Empire—the ſafety, the liberty, the life of every man in the kingdom are at ſtake. The events, perhaps of a few months, *certainly* of a few years, are to determine whether we and our children are to continue *freemen* and *members* of the moſt flouriſhing community in the world, or whether we are to be the *ſlaves* of our moſt implacable enemies—*themſelves* the *ſlaves* of a foreign uſurper?

'We look on this great criſis without diſmay. We have the moſt firm reliance on the ſpirit and virtue of the people of this country. We believe that there exiſts a firmer, as well as nobler courage than any which rapine can inſpire; and we cannot entertain ſuch gloomy and unworthy apprehenſions of the moral order of the world, as to think that ſo admirable a quality can be the *excluſive* attribute of freebooters or ſlaves. We fight for our *laws* and *liberties*—to defend the *deareſt* hopes of our *children*—to maintain the unſpotted glory which we have inherited from our anceſtors—to guard from outrage and ſhame thoſe whom Nature has entruſted to our protection—to preſerve the honour and exiſtence of the country that gave us birth.

'We fight for that conſtitution and ſyſtem of ſociety, which is at once the nobleſt monument and the firmeſt bulwark of civilization! We fight to preſerve the *whole earth* from the barbarous yoke of military deſpotiſm! We fight for the independence of all nations, even of thoſe who are the moſt indifferent to our fate, or the moſt blindly jealous of our proſperity!

'In ſo *glorious* a cauſe, in the defence of theſe dear and ſacred objects, we truſt that the God of our fathers will inſpire us with a *valour* which will be more than equal to the daring ferocity of thoſe who are lured by the hope of plunder, to fight the battles of ambition.

'His majeſty is about to call upon his people to arm in their own defence. We *truſt*, and we *believe* that he will *not* call on them in *vain*; that the freemen of this land, going forth in the righteous cauſe of their country, under the bleſſing of Almighty God, will inflict the moſt ſignal chaſtiſement on thoſe who have dared to threaten our deſtruction—a chaſtiſement, of which the memory will long guard the ſhores of this iſland, and which may not only vindicate the honour, and eſtabliſh the ſafety of the Britiſh empire, but may alſo, to the lateſt poſterity, ſerve as an example to ſtrike terror into tyrants, and to give courage and hope to inſulted and oppreſſed nations.

'For the attainment of theſe *great* ends, it is neceſſary that we ſhould not only be an *unanimous*, but a *zealous*, an *ardent*, and *unconquerable* people—that we ſhould conſider the public ſafety as the chief intereſt of every individual—that every man ſhould deem the ſacrifice of his fortune and his life to his country as nothing more than his duty—that no man ſhould murmur at any exertions or privations which this *awful* criſis may impoſe upon him—that we ſhould regard faintneſs or languor in the *common* cauſe as the baſeſt treachery—that we ſhould go into the field with an unſhaken reſolution to *conquer* or to *die*—and that we ſhould look upon nothing as a calamity compared with the ſubjugation of our country.

'We have moſt ſacred duties to perform—we have moſt invaluable bleſſings to preſerve—we have to *gain* glory and ſafety, or to incur indelible diſgrace, and to fall into irretrieveable ruin. Upon *our* efforts will depend the triumph of liberty over deſpotiſm—of national independence over projects of univerſal empire—and, finally, of civiliſation itſelf over barbariſm.

'At *ſuch* a moment we deem it our duty ſolemnly to bind ourſelves to each other, and to our countrymen, in the moſt ſacred manner, that we will employ all our exertions to *rouſe* the *ſpirit*, and to aſſiſt the reſources of the kingdom—that we will be ready with our ſervices of *every* ſort, and on *every* occaſion, in its defence—and that we will rather periſh together, than live to ſee the honour of the Britiſh name tarniſhed, or that *noble* inheritance of greatneſs, glory, and liberty deſtroyed, which has deſcended to us from our forefathers, and which we are determined to tranſmit to our poſterity.'

JACOB BOSANQUET, Chairman.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

[From the London Gazette.]

Admiralty-office, July 5, 1803.

Copy of a Letter tranſmitted by Admiral Sir John Colpoys.

Loire, off Iſle de Bas,

Sir, June 28, 1803.

I have the pleaſure of informing you, that laſt night three of the boats of his majeſty's ſhip Loire, commanded by lieutenants Temple and Bowen, in a moſt gallant manner boarded, and, after a very ſevere conflict of nearly ten minutes on her deck, carried the national brig Venteux, bearing four long eighteen pounders, and ſix thirty-ſix pound braſs carronades, commanded by monſ. Montford, lieutenant de vaiſſeau, lying cloſe under the batteries of the Iſle of Bas. When it is conſidered that the Venteux, perfectly prepared, manned with eighty-two men, all of whom were upon deck, and covered with very heavy batteries, was oppoſed to the crews of two of our boats (as the third, from rowing heavy, did not get up till the brig was completely gained poſſeſſion of), I feel confident that you will view it in the light that I do, as one of thoſe brilliant exploits which add luſtre to the Britiſh arms, of which, though ſo many inſtances occured during the late war, no one has before been happy enough to have thrown in his way during the preſent. The ſucceſs of Mr. Temple's daring attempt ſpeaks ſufficiently of his conduct, and that of every one under his command, to render it ſuperfluous for me to enter into any eulogium on the preſent occaſion. Mr. Bridges has ſerved his time and paſſed for lieutenant nearly a year; of whoſe conduct Mr. Temple ſpeaks in the higheſt terms, together with that of every officer and man under his command. I am very ſorry to add, that the loſs on our ſide is rather heavy, as Mr. M'Gwire, the boatſwain, is ſo ſeverely wounded as to render him incapable of doing his duty for a conſiderable time. Four ſeamen and a marine are alſo badly wounded, two of the ſeamen, I fear, paſt recovery. The Venteux had her ſecond captain and two ſeamen killed: the captain, with four officers, all ſhe had, and eight ſeamen, wounded. She was ſtationed at the Iſle of Bas to guard the coaſt, and regulate the convoys of ſtores, &c. bound to Breſt: is a veſſel of large dimenſions, being ſeventy-four feet long and twent-four feet wide, and perfectly in a condition to be immediately employed. I have the honour to be, &c.

F. MAITLAND.

Sir John Colpoys, K. B. &c.

CAPTURES FROM THE ENEMY.

La Phœbe French cutter, four guns, by the Hydra and Roſe cutter.

La Bacchante corvette, 18 guns, by the Endymion.

Le Dart brig, four guns, by the Apollo.

La Providence, two guns, by the Naiad.

Le Pelagie, four guns, by the Doris.

Le Felix, 16 guns, by the Amazon.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

JULY 4.

Downing-ſtreet, June 28.

THE king has been pleaſed to cauſe it to be ſignified by the right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, to the miniſters of neutral powers reſiding at this court, that the neceſſary meaſures having been taken by his majeſty's command for the blockade of the entrance of the river Elbe, in conſequence of the forcible occupation of parts of the banks of that river by the French troops, the ſaid river is declared to be in a ſtate of blockade; and that from this time all the meaſures authorized by the law of nations and the reſpective treaties between his majeſty and the different neutral powers will be adopted and executed with reſpect to all veſſels which may attempt to violate the ſaid blockade. Lord Hawkeſbury has been further commanded by his majeſty to ſignify to the miniſters of the neutral powers, that whenever the French troops will evacuate the poſitions which they now occupy on parts of the banks of the Elbe, and will remove to ſuch a diſtance from them as to leave the courſe of that river perfectly free and ſecure to the veſſels of his ſubjects, as well as of other nations, his majeſty will immediately direct his ſhips of war which may be ſtationed at the mouth of the river Elbe, for the purpoſe of blockading the ſame, to be withdrawn.—*London Gazette.*

JULY 9.

The ſeſſion commenced at the Old Bailey on Wedneſday before the right hon. the Lord Mayor, Mr. Juſtice Rooke, Mr. Juſtice Lawrence, Mr. Recorder, &c. when fifteen priſoners were tried, four of whom were capitally convicted, among whom was John Thompſon, alias Kelly, for aſſaulting Mary Hurſt on the highway, and robbing her of her baſket, containing knitting needles and other articles.

On Wedneſday the recorder made a report to his majeſty of the following priſoners under ſentence of death in Newgate, convicted in May ſeſſions laſt, viz. W. Aldridge, J. Grant, J. Bryon, and W. Wells, alias Harvey; when John Grant was ordered for execution.—He has been ſince reſpited.

JULY 11.

On Saturday the 9th inſt. at two o'clock, a fire was diſcovered to have taken place at the top of the Great Tower of Weſtminſter Abbey, over the choir, which had been occaſioned by the negligence of ſome plumbers who were employed in repairing the roof. Some embers had fallen on the dry timber, and thoſe were by the wind ſoon fanned into a flame, which communicated with the rafts, and very ſoon endangered the ſafety of the whole of that venerable fabric.

The fire was confined within the dimenſions of the Great Tower, but the falling of the heavy timbers occaſioned very great damages in the choir below. The paintings and decorations of the altar were ſecured and taken to a place of ſafety, at the commencement of the fire; the organ was alſo preſerved without injury, but the ſtalls in the body of the choir were cruſhed and moſtly demoliſhed.

JULY 12.

Yeſterday the ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when Mary Tate, Maria Barrell, alias Adair, M. Murphy, Charlotte Wood, Sophia Blundell, Wilfry Eyres, Eleanor Brown, Alice Bennett, C. Williams, B. Harris, Mat. Webſter, alias Chubby, D. Welſh, S. Collins, J. Thompſon, alias Kelly, and B. Smith, ſeverally received judgment of death. Twelve were ordered to be tranſported for the term of ſeven years; one for the term of 14 years; fifteen were ordered to be impriſoned in the houſe of correction, at Clerkenwell, and nine in Newgate; ſeven ordered to be privately whipped, and two to be publicly whipped.

The ſeſſion was adjourned to Wedneſday the 11th of September next.

JULY 16.

Thurſday a half-yearly general court of the proprietors of Bank Stock was held at the Bank, for the purpoſe of declaring a dividend. In the courſe of doing this, it became neceſſary for the chairman of the court of directors to ſtate the loſs the company had ſuſtained by Mr. Aſlett. The actual loſs he ſtated at about 320,000l.; about 78,000l. has been employed in ſources from which the directors think they will be able to recover, and they are determined to proſecute to that effect. On the part of the directors it was ſtated, that the loſs of Mr. Aſlett would make no alteration in the dividends. The loſs amounted to nearly the entire dividends of the half year; but the affairs of the company were in ſo proſperous a ſtate that they would be able to divide as uſual.

JULY 26.

The public ſpirit of the mercantile part of the city has begun to ſhow itſelf in the moſt honourable manner. On Wedneſday a meeting of the ſubſcribers to Lloyd's Coffee houſe took place, at which ſome very ſpirited reſolutions were adopted, and a ſplendid ſubſcription opened for the purpoſe of granting relief to the relatives of thoſe who may fall in the preſent conteſt, and for rewarding diſtinguiſhed merit. The ſubſcribers voted 20,000l. 3 per cent. conſols out of their own fund toward the object. A great number of moſt liberal contributions were ſubſcribed.—The ſubſcriptions already amount to forty-five thouſand pounds, beſide the 20,000l. in the conſols.

JULY 27.

According to an overland diſpatch from Bombay, we find that a moſt dreadful fire broke out at that place, on the 17th of February, which conſumed the greateſt part of the town. It is ſaid that above one thouſand houſes are burnt to the ground, and that the loſs is eſtimated at above five millions ſterling. The native merchants were ſuppoſed to be the principal ſufferers.—It broke out in the crowded and populous Bazar, three fourths of which were deſtroyed. It is ſaid to have originated in a ſtable, where ſome valuable horſes became its firſt victims; unfortunately the wind continued rather high the whole day, which increaſed the flames in the progreſs of its direction with aſtoniſhing rapidity, and ſo great and violent was the conflagration at ſun-ſet, that the deſtruction of every houſe in the fort was to be apprehended. All the records and papers in the ſecretary's office were removed at an early hour. Beyond the Bazar, the

flames extended to the king's barracks, which are moſtly deſtroyed. The cuſtom-houſe alſo is in ruins: it proceeded from thence to the range of houſes called the Tank barracks, where it was ſtopped, by the prudent precaution of uſing artillery to beat down the contiguous buildings. For ſome time the greateſt apprehenſion was entertained for the garriſon and magazines, but at laſt the wind providentially falling, the fury of the conflagration ſubſided.

JULY 29.

On Monday laſt there were very alarming rumours relative to Ireland, the principal of which were, that in Dublin, a private gunpowder mill had been diſcovered in conſequence of its blowing up; that ball cartridges had been found prepared for the uſe of rebels; and that perſons making pikes had been detected. Circumſtances have ſince tranſpired that unfortunately tend to confirm them. It is too true that a gunpowder mill and pikes were diſcovered, and perſons engaged in them are in cuſtody. By this morning's poſt, an account has been received from Dublin, mentioning that an extraordinary riot had taken place on Saturday evening the 23d inſtant. That as the lord chief juſtice Kilwarden, accompanied in his carriage by his nephew the rev. R. Wolfe, were paſſing through Thomas-ſtreet, Dublin, they were both dragged from it, and moſt barbarouſly murdered. The troops were drawn out after theſe exceſſes had taken place, and they were obliged to fire upon the mob, ſeveral of whom were killed, and ſome of the ringleaders taken priſoners. Colonel Browne, another officer, and fifty private ſoldiers, are ſaid to have been killed.—On the departure of the meſſenger who left Dublin at one o'clock on Monday morning, that city was then in a perfect ſtate of tranquillity, and very ſtrongly guarded by both yeomanry and regulars. The lord lieutenant has iſſued a proclamation on the ſubject; offering a reward of one thouſand pounds for each and every of the firſt three perſons who ſhall be apprehended and convicted thereof.

In conſequence of the above intelligence, a meſſage was communicated to both houſes of parliament, deſiring them to provide the moſt efficacious means for ſuppreſſing the treaſonable rebellion.—Bills were accordingly prepared to ſuſpend the habeas corpus act, and to proclaim martial law in Ireland, under certain reſtrictions. The bills were read three times, and paſſed to the lords; where they underwent a ſimilar diſpatch, the ſame evening: and the royal aſſent has been given by commiſſion.

MARRIAGES.

JOHN Pepys, eſq. of Upper Charlotte-ſtreet, Fitzroy-ſquare, to miſs Bond, eldeſt daughter of the late J. Bond, eſq. Mitcham.

William Soltau, eſq. merchant, to miſs Wilſon, youngeſt daughter of J. Wilſon, eſq. of Stoke Newington.

Sir Henry Peyton, bart. of Hagbetch, to Mrs. Bradſhaw.

Henry Thomas Davis, eſq. of the navy, to miſs Sampſon.

Mr. Milner, ſon of ſir W. Milner, to miſs Clements, grandaughter to the right hon. John Beresford.

Alexander Bruce Morris, eſq. of Berbice, to miſs Arabella Beard, of Fenchurch-ſtreet.

William Abbott, eſq. of Wimpole-ſtreet, to miſs Ward, daughter of William Zouth Lucas Ward, eſq. of Guilſborough-hall.

William Dickinſon, eſq. jun. M. P. to miſs Smith, eldeſt daughter of Samuel Smith, eſq. M. P. of Woodhall-park, Hertford.

Lieutenant-colonel Browne, to miſs Charlotte Wolſeley, ſecond daughter of ſir William Wolſeley, bart. of Wolſeley-hall, Staffordſhire.

DEATHS.

WILLIAM Blake, eſq. in Great Cumberland-place.

Mr. John Walter, bookſeller at Charing-croſs.

Mrs. Waugh, Greenwich, aged 82.

General Smith.

Mr. William Jackſon, of Exeter.

Samuel Martin, eſq. late of Tortola.

Mr. Evans, late a bookſeller in Paternoſter-row.

William Browne, eſq. of Watling-ſtreet.

Captain Thomas Hughes Williams.

James F. E. Scott, a general in the Pruſſian ſervice.

Major-general Horton Briſcoe, at Calcutta.

Roger Boehm, eſq. one of the directors of the Bank of England.

Auguſtine Greenland, eſq. late deputy-teller of the exchequer.

Alexander Manners Leſlie, eſq. nephew to lord Newark.

Rev. Thelwall Saliſbury, of Graveley, Herts, aged 74.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

JUNE 25.

L. COHEN, Jewry-ſtreet, Aldgate, merchant.

T. Cuſſons and W. Wawne, Kingſton-upon-Hull, merchants.

J. Shaw, of Peter's-lane, John-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, cheeſemonger.

T. Jones, Dowlais, Glamorgan, grocer.

R. Symons, Dover, Kent, ſhip-broker.

I. Wilſon, Thornhaugh-ſtreet, merchant.

J. Sawyer, and J. Kettlewell, Leeds, Yorkſhire, merchants.

JUNE 28.

R. Corleſs, Blackburn, in Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

J. Fenwick, Penzance, Cornwall, linen-draper.

W. Thomas, Whitby, Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

S. Standiſh, Pontefract, in Yorkſhire, hoſier.

T. Richardſon, Halifax, in Yorkſhire, merchant.

J. Peterſon, Stradbrooke, Suffolk, tanner.

JULY 2.

J. Portal, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, linen-draper.

T. Berkeley, Cornhill, merchant.

G. J. Emmott, Mancheſter, grocer.

S. Bicknell the elder, and S. Bicknell the younger, Maze-pond, Surry, ſoap-boilers.

E. Burton, Daventry, Northampton-ſhire, money ſcrivener.

W. Walker, Leeds, Yorkſhire, merchant.

JULY 5.

J. Barlow, Mancheſter, grocer.

W. Tolley, Dudley, Worceſterſhire, victualler.

J. Steel, Liverpool, liquor-merchant.

F. Byrne, Birmingham, japanner.

J. Sprigg, Birmingham, linen-draper.

JULY 9.

D. Wilmott, Whitecroſs-ſtreet, wine-merchant.

J. Shepherd, Aldgate High-ſtreet, linen-draper.

G. Fraſer, and A. Fraſer, Bow-church-yard, warehouſemen.

B. Ruſhforth, Marſhall-hall, and W. Ruſhforth, Crowſtorne-hall, Yorkſhire, merchants.

J. Jacks, London, merchant.

T. Purcell, Fleet-ſtreet, boot-maker.

E. Galton, Ilford, Eſſex, innkeeper.

J. Perkins, Birmingham, factor.

M. Foy, Wapping-wall, butcher.

H. Tredwell, Wolvercot, Oxfordſhire, grocer.

J. Ruſh, Sackville-ſtreet, St. James', wine-merchant.

JULY 12.

J. Houlroyd, Soughwood, Yorkſhire, dealer.

R. Emery, Aldridge, in Staffordſhire, malſter.

R. Weſtmacott the elder, Mount-ſtreet, Hanover-ſquare, ſculptor.

JULY 16.

G. Stelfox, Cheſter, malſter.

J. Parker, Great Wratting, Suffolk, farmer.

J. Clewett, Cecil-ſtreet, Strand, taylor.

J. Enſor, Sherborne, Dorſetſhire, ſpirit-dealer.

H. Becvy, Cockermouth, Cumberland, merchant.

J. Atkinſon, Biſhop Wearmouth, Durham, ſhip-owner.

W. Friend, Sunderland, in Durham, whiteſmith.

JULY 19.

R. Elmore, Abchurch, Worceſterſhire, miller.

E. Blakeway, J. Roſe, and R. Winter, Coulport, Salop, porcelain-manufacturers.

J. Leigh, Liverpool, merchant.

G. Simpleton, Pancras-lane, merchant.

W. Phillips, Liverpool, fruiterer.

W. Leigh the younger, Liverpool, merchant.

JULY 23.

C. Clarke, Great Yarmouth, Norfolk, liquor-merchant.

M. Church, America-ſquare, Minories, merchant.

F. Glenton, and J. Neſs, Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, chymiſts.

B. Day, Biſhop's Stortford, Hertford, draper.

Alice Voſe, Liverpool, milliner.

J. Travis, and P. Nevill, Bolton-le-Moors, Lancaſter, muſlin-manufacturers.

S. Winpenny, Halifax, Yorkſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

D. Holmes, Liverpool, grocer.

J. Popplewell, and J. Jepſon, Lawrence Pouſtney-lane, brokers.

J. Ingram, of the Strand, hatter.

JULY 26.

J. Boyce, Tiverton, Devon, carpenter.

J. Edward, Peter-ſtreet, Bloomſbury-ſquare, plumber.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

PLOWDEN's Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland, 3 vol. 4to, 4l 4s.

Fox's Hiſtory of the Human Teeth, 4to, 1l 1s.

Crawford's Poems, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Flowerdew's Poems, 12mo, 4s.

Truths of the Chriſtian Religion, evidenced from Biſhop Porteus, 12mo, 4s.

Eſſay on the Beauties of the Univerſe, 12mo, 4s 6d.

Hiſtory and Antiquities of Pleſhy, in Eſſex, 4to, 1l 11s 6d.

Evans' View of Lord Mansfield's Civil Deciſions, 2 vol. 4to, 2l 14s.

Cambridge's (Richard Owen) Works, 4to, 2l 12s 6d.

Crirrie's Scottiſh Scenery, in Verſe, with 20 Views, 4to, 3l 3s.

Morrice's View of Modern France, 12mo, 6s.

Rowley's Inquiry concerning Antichriſt, 2 vol. 8vo, 15s.

King's (Lord) Thoughts on the Reſtriction of Payments in Specie, 2s.

Biſſet's Hiſtory of the Reign of George III, 6 vol. 8vo, 2l 12s 6d.

Card's Hiſtory of the Revolutions of Ruſſia, 8vo, 12s.

Millar's Hiſtorical View of the Engliſh Government, 4 vol. 8vo, 1l 12s.

Anderſon's Deſcription of a Patent Hothouſe, 12mo, 5s.

Bicheno's Signs of the Times, 8vo, 4s.

Brown's Sermons, 8vo, 7s.

Eaſt's Pleas of the Crown, vol. 1, 2, royal 8vo, 1l 18s.

Hand's Solicitor's Practice in King's Bench, 8vo, 10s 6d.

Burn's Law relative to Stockjobbing, 2s 6d.

Turner's Vindication of ſome Ancient Britiſh Poems, 8vo, 6s.

Seymour's (Charlotte) Powers of Imagination, a Poem, 4to, 1l 1s.

Percival's Medical Ethics, 8vo, 5s.

Carr's Stranger in France, 4to, 1l 1s.

Wood's Importance of Malta conſidered, 4to, 5s.

Stock's (Biſhop) Iſaiah, Hebrew and Engliſh, 4to, 1l 1s.

Collier's Law of Patents, royal 8vo, 10s 6d.

Good's Memoirs of Dr. Geddes, 8vo, 10s 6d.

Political and Confidenti Correſpondence of Louis XVI, 3 vol. 8vo, 1l 1s.

Lucy Ormond, a Story, 12mo, 3s 6d.

German Sorcereſs, 3 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Reginald di Torby, 2 vol. 12mo, 8s.

Leopold, or the Baſtard, 2 vol. 12mo, 8s.

Deſtiny, or Family Occurrences, 2 vol. 12mo, 6s.

Frederic Montravers, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Myſterious Count, 2 vol. 12mo, 7s.

Therwald Caſtle, 2 vol. 12mo, 8s.

Letters from Mr. Palmerſtone to her Daughter, 3 vol. ſmall 8vo, 15s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN,

July 15, 1803.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	60	8	35	0	26	4	25	11
Surry	62	4	34	0	25	4	25	10
Hertford	53	10	35	6	25	9	24	0
Bedford	52	5	31	7	24	3	24	1
Huntingdon	49	5	—	—	22	3	18	2
Northampton	54	0	30	0	21	4	20	9
Rutland	58	0	—	—	22	0	20	0
Leiceſter	53	9	—	—	22	8	19	10
Nottingham	60	6	36	0	26	0	21	2
Derby	62	0	—	—	26	0	22	3
Stafford	59	10	—	—	24	10	22	10
Salop	56	4	37	1	25	2	24	6
Hereford	55	11	35	2	24	4	24	8
Worceſter	53	6	—	—	25	3	26	2
Warwick	57	6	—	—	27	0	22	0
Wilts	55	0	—	—	23	6	22	6
Berks	60	9	—	—	24	8	25	6
Oxford	55	7	—	—	22	11	21	7
Bucks	56	4	—	—	23	8	24	2
Brecon	56	6	32	0	24	10	20	0
Montgomery	57	6	—	—	25	7	20	3
Radnor	53	10	—	—	21	10	22	3

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	58	0	32	0	23	4	26	10
Kent	60	6	—	—	25	0	28	3
Suſſex	58	6	—	—	—	—	25	8
Suffolk	57	3	—	—	21	3	25	6
Cambridge	50	6	—	—	22	10	19	6
Norfolk	55	1	32	3	1	0	—	—
Lincoln	53	3	30	0	21		19	3
York	56	10	37	2	24		19	10
Durham	59	0	—	—	—	—	24	9
Northumberland	57	9	39	4	24	8	23	7
Cumberland	65	2	47	10	30	4	26	6
Weſtmorland	68	0	54	0	28	2	30	4
Lancaſter	60	6	—	—	27	10	23	2
Cheſter	57	7	—	—	—	—	21	8
Flint	64	0	—	—	30	11	—	—
Denbigh	63	4	—	—	—	—	23	1
Angleſea	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	0
Carnarvon	64	0	48	0	26	4	15	6
Merioneth	64	10	—	—	28	0	23	0
Cardigan	56	4	—	—	22	0	14	11
Pembroke	51	9	—	—	20	2	16	0
Carmarthen	64	0	—	—	24	0	15	10
Glamorgan	62	11	—	—	28	8	22	8
Glouceſter	56	5	—	—	23	0	21	11
Somerſet	59	11	—	—	24	7	21	4
Monmouth	61	5	—	—	23	0	—	—
Devon	66	5	—	—	27	6	24	0
Cornwall	67	7	—	—	31	0	24	2
Dorſet	59	0	—	—	27	0	22	8
Hants	61	2	—	—	24	8	23	4

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	58	6	36	10	24	9	22	4

July 29—Peck Loaf 3s 3d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, June 1803.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 3,61
1	7	30,31	53,5	57,5	57	2	WSW 2	
	2	30,31	65	61	50	3	WSW 1	. hazy eve and wind s
2	7	29,98	57	61		5	SE 1	. chiefly gentle rain
	2	29,86	57	60,5	60	5	WSW	little rain. fine. little rain. fine night
3	7	29,83	53	58,5	58	3	SSW 1	. chiefly cloudy and rainy
	2	29,83	57	59,5	57	5	SSW 1	little rain. fine
4	7	29,82	55	58	59	3	SSE 1	hazy
	2	29,79	64,5	60	48	3	SSE 2	. cloudy eve. little wet: little rain
5	7	29,77	55,5	59	59	4	ESE 1	. more cloudy. rain: leſs cloudy
F	2	29,79	60,5	59	55	4	SE 1	. wind sw and little rain at times: fine
6	7	29,83	54	58	58	2	SW 1	hazy. cloudy at times: little rain
	2	29,86	61	59,5	54	3	W 1	. thunder ſhowers. cloudy night: fine
7	7	29,98	52	58	56	5	WSW 2	. little rain. chiefly fine
	2	30,06	57	58	50	5	WSW 2	little wet. fine: rain
8	7	29,95	51,5	50,5	60	h	SSE 1	continual rain and wind ENE
	2	29,86	55,5	58	67	h	ENE 1	much gentle rain. fair night: fine
9	7	30,02	54	57	62	4	NE 1	. little rain and wind SSE. fair: rain
	2	29,96	59	59	64	5	SE 1	little rain. thunder and much rain. barometer
10	7	29,96	54	58	61	3	W 2	: rain and hail [29,76. fine night
	2	30,09	57	60	55	3	W 1	little rain at times
11	7	30,16	53	57	60	4	SW 1	. chiefly more cloudy
	2	30,18	60	59	56	5	SW 2	. little rain: drizzly morn
12	7	30,14	58	60,5	65	5	SW 1	. rain. fine at times
	2	30,10	63,5	62,5	64	5	WSW 1	
13	7	30,06	59,5	61,5	64	5	WSW 1	. little rain. leſs cloudy at times
	2	30,05	64	63	60	5	WSW 1	. fine
14	7	30,17	60	62	57	2	W 1	hazy. diſtant thunder
	2	30,20	71,5	65,5	52	3	W 2	. clear night
15	7	30,19	58	60,5	57	3	W 1	hazy. cloudy: little rain
	2	30,15	61	63,5	61	5	SW 2	little rain. fine night
16	7	30,33	58,5	62,5	61	3	W 1	hazy
	2	30,36	70,5	66	53	2	WSW 1	: cloudy
17	7	30,28	59,5	63,5	57	5	W 2	. fine
	2	30,33	68	66,5	53	3	W 2	. cloudy. much gentle rain
18	7	30,12	60,5	64	63	h	W 1	rain. fair. chiefly fine
	2	30,10	65	66,5	62	5	W 1	. leſs cloudy but hazy: little ſmall rain
19	7	30,11	57,5	63,5	62	5	W 1	rain. fair: rain
N	2	29,97	58	63	62	5	SW 2	little rain. chiefly fair: fine
20	7	30,00	56,5	61,5	58	4	W 1	. chiefly rain
	2	29,98	57,5	62,5	57	5	W 1	much rain. wind NE and fair. little rain: fine
21	7	30,07	52	59,5	58	2	NNW 2	
	2	30,28	63,5	61,5	46	3	WNW 2	. cloudy eve. fine. cloudy
22	7	30,33	54	59	56	5	WNW 2	. little wet: chiefly rain
	2	30,23	56,5	60	56	h	W 2	rain at times. fine eve
23	7	30,38	51,5	56,6	56	1	NW 1	hazy. more cloudy
	2	30,40	62,5	60	52	4	N 1	. cloudleſs eve but thick below
24	7	30,41	55	58	56	3	N 1	hazy
	2	30,47	67,5	62,5	51	3	N 1	hazy. cloudleſs eve
25	7	30,52	55	59,5	56	2	E 1	hazy. more cloudy at times
	2	30,54	66,5	62	52	4	E 1	. cloudleſs night
26	7	30,56	56	59	55	4	E 1	
	2	30,59	67,5	63	51	4	E 1	. leſs cloudy: cloudy
27	7	30,57	55	59,5	57	5	ENE 1	: leſs cloudy
	2	30,50	65,5	62	53	4	N 1	. fine. cloudy eve: little rain
28	7	30,44	55	60	61	h	ENE 1	. fine
	2	30,39	69,5	63	53	1	E 1	: cloudy
29	7	30,38	55,5	61	62	f	E 1	. thick upward. not cloudy
	2	30,38	70	64,5	56	2	NNE 1	hazy. cloudy
30	7	30,37	55	61	60	5	NE 1	hazy. fine
	2	30,38	65,5	63	53	2	ENE 1	. thick upward at night

PRICES of STOCKS, from JUNE 29 to JULY 27, 1803, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. conſols.	4 per C. Anns.	5 per Ct. Ann. 1797	Navy 5 per Ct.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day	Exc. Bills 3d per day	Engliſh Lot. Tic.
												2s dif.		
29		55 ¾	ſhut.		91 ⅛									
30	145	55 ⅛	57¼ ⅛	71 ¼	91		16 ⅜			54 ⅛	9 ¾	3		
1		55 ¼	56¾ ⅜	71 ¼	90		16 ⅜	3 ⅝		53 ¾		3		
2		54 ⅝	56¼ 55¾	69 ⅞	89 ¾		16 ⅛					3		
4	140	53 ½	55 ¼	67 ⅝	88		15 ⅞			51		4		
5		52 ¼	53¾ 51⅞	65 ⅛	86		15 ⅝				9 ¼	6		
6		54	54 55⅜	67 ¼	86 ½		15 ⅜	3 ½		53		6		
7		55 ⅛	55⅝ 56½	69 ⅜	89		16 ⅛		162			3		
8		55 ⅛	56⅜ ⅞	70 ⅛	90 ⅜		16 ⅛		162 ½	54	10	1		
9	142 ¾	55	54⅛ 54½	70 ¼	90 ½	85 ¾	16 ⅛	3 ½	165	54	9 ⅞			
11	143	55 ⅛	54½ 55⅛	70	90 ½	85 ½	16 ⅛				9 ⅞			
12	142 ½	54 ¾	53⅞ 54½	69 ¾	89 ⅜	85 ⅛	16 ⅛	3 ½		54	9 ¾			
13	142	55	54½ ⅜	69 ¼	90 ⅜	86	16 ⅛			53 ½				
14	141	54 ½	54⅜ 53⅞	70	90 ⅜	85 ½	16 ⅛				9 ⅝			
15	143	54 ⅜	54⅛ ⅜	70 ⅝	90 ⅜	87	16 ⅛	3 ½		53 ¾				
16		54 ⅝	54⅛ 53⅞	70 ¼	90 ⅜		16 ⅛					1s pre.		
18		54 ⅜	54 53⅞	70 ⅜	90 ⅜	86 ⅜	16 ⅛			53 ¼				
19	142 ½	54 ⅜	54⅜ 54⅝	70 ⅜	90 ½	86 ⅛	16 ⅛	3 ½		53 ¼	9 ¾			
20		52 ⅝	51⅞ 50½	67	86 ¾	82 ½	15 ⅞		159 ¼					
2	142	54 ⅛	53⅛ ⅜	70 ⅛	90	85 ⅛	16 ⅛				9 ⅜			
22	141	54	53⅞ 53	69 ⅞	89 ⅞	85 ¾	16 ⅛	3 ⅛	161 ¼	52 ⅛				
23	141	54 ⅛	53½ ¼	70 ⅛	90 ¾		16 ⅛	3 ⅛			9 ⅛			
25														
26	140	54	53½ 52½	69 ¾	89 ½	85 ⅝	16 ⅛		162	52 ⅛	9 ½			
27	139	53 ¼	52¾ ¼	69 ⅜	88 ⅛	85 ¼	16			51 ⅞				

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial *Annuities* excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.